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ABSTRACT

The goals of the five chapters in this guide are to help both new and experienced educators develop as reflective practitioners and to integrate a mentoring program into the fabric of a school's community. The first chapter discusses adult learning and development, reflective practice, change, and diversity. The second chapter presents an overview of the goals for a mentoring program; a discussion of the critical components involved in planning and implementing a mentoring program, including the needs of new teachers and mentors; and a review of the roles and responsibilities of the individuals and organizations that enable a mentoring program to work. The third chapter addresses the training of mentor teachers (e.g., communication skills; observation, documentation, and conferencing skills; and current theory about what consitutes excellent teaching). Evaluation of the effectiveness of a mentoring program is discussed in the fourth chapter. The final chapter discusses mentoring in the context of a district's professional development activities. Each chapter provides a brief review of the research and literature on that topic, activities, and a list of resources. (LL)

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Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

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The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

Introduction

Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

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Mentoring:

A Resource and Training Guide for Educators

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FOREWORD

Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators is one outcome of a unique regional effort to ensure that the states served by this regional educational laboratory continue to enjoy a steady supply of highly qualified educators. Significant regional efforts require sustained collaboration and, since 1987, several northeastern state education agencies and the Laboratory have been so engaged under the umbrella of the Northeast Common Market Project. The work has included ongoing dialogue with those affected by policy decisions -- especially the teachers and administrators in our region's schools and districts, and faculty members in teacher preparatory programs. We at the Laboratory are proud of the role we have played in fostering not only the collaboration between states but also between state-level policymakers and many others who voice the realities of the education community. This document is a testament to that collaboration. The hundreds of teachers, administrators, professional development coordinators, and faculty from teacher preparatory programs who have already used or reviewed this document confirm that we've forged an essential link.

The impetus for this project came from the Commissioners of Education, their staffs, and Laboratory staff. All recognized the value and importance of teacher induction programs in ensuring that good teachers would be attracted to our schools and stay to make a lasting contribution to children's education. Among the participating states, fewer than half had formal teacher induction programs in place at the time, and each used a different approach. A mutual desire to contribute to the Northeast Common Market effort for new teachers led to the development of this guidebook.

It was a carefully structured process of development that took into account what knowledge utilization researchers have learned about what it takes to ensure that an R&D product is seen as salient by and useful to intended users. The authors whose names you see on the title page represent those with expertise and responsibility for professional development, teacher induction, and teacher certification in several state education agencies, as well as Laboratory staff, who worked with them and supported their efforts. Together this group first assembled and reviewed the research on mentoring, teacher induction, adult learning and development, reflective practice, change, and diversity. As they worked, they added an essential ingredient -- integration of the experience and wisdom of practice. They wrote collaboratively and, from the beginning, extended that collaboration by seeking reviews and by piloting the materials with a number of schools and districts, including those that were working with teacher preparatory institutions. After each section of the guidebook was drafted, it was sent out for review to approximately one hundred teachers, teacher preparers, administrators, professional development coordinators, and others in the field.

Thus, through early trial, potential users helped develop these materials, becoming early implementors and later, natural disseminators. For example, an original network of pilot schools in one state has blossomed into a statewide dissemination project. By listening to and engaging with those in the field, this document and its ideas have already moved into the fabric of practice from Niagara Falls to Narragansett Bay -- use is, after all, the goal of the development process.

This collaborative writing process -- with each other and with their clients -- also made the development of this document a significant professional development experience for the staff involved. Their knowledge -- of the research, of practice, of how to best support clients in schools and districts -- has been deepened and given new meaning in the course of their writing and reflecting. We are confident that the document they have produced contributes to educational reform in our region (and elsewhere) by speaking in a united voice that synthesizes the different lexicons and learnings of both research and practice.

Fostering and supporting important collaborations between diverse groups and jurisdictions, such as those I've mentioned above, is one role played by a regional educational laboratory. Laboratories are designed and structured to creatively contribute to education reform, especially where reform can be enhanced and accelerated by R&D knowledge. It is our reason for being. As a neutral regional entity capable of bringing diverse groups together for common pursuits, we are able to bolster and channel the energy, experience, and expertise of a multitude of constituents, from parents and community members to state-level policymakers. And, through documents like this, we affirm to our colleagues and clients that their investment in collaborative development is well worth it. We look forward to learning that you, too, have benefited.

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PREFACE

The developing of this publication is a part of the work of the Northeast Common Market Project, a collaborative effort of the Commissioners of Education in the New England states and New York and The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands that began in November 1987. The impetus for the project and the guidebook was the Commissioners' concern regarding the need for a continual supply of highly qualified educators in the Northeast. Equally important was the authors' shared philosophy that new teachers need assistance, particularly as they face ever-increasing demands and expectations in response to calls for school improvement. In addition, when experienced teachers assume a helping role, like mentoring, research indicates that they are renewed and rejuvenated (Oja 1989; Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987).

Relationships to ourselves, our environment, and others are primary to us as human beings. If the education profession is to address these vital aspects of our lives, then it is essential that we embrace the concept of the experienced, master teacher entering into a mentoring relationship with a new teacher as we prepare ourselves and our students for the twenty-first century.

The authors of this document chose to collaboratively write the following pages to develop a strong, single voice in the ongoing regional conversation about educational reform. Although individual states, districts, schools, teachers, and administrators have unique needs and concerns, it is our relationship to one another in the pursuit of educational reform that is most important.

Although the participating states agreed on the value of teacher induction programs, those already implemented in three of the seven states in the region were dissimilar in many ways: Some were support models; others incorporated both support and assessment. Some were centralized; others were decentralized. As state education agency staff struggled to identify an area of collaboration amidst differing statutory requirements and needs, they determined that the development of a regional resource and training guidebook on mentoring would be most beneficial to their constituents.

The first task undertaken was the collection of materials from research, literature, and practice that state education agencies representatives and Regional Laboratory staff thought might be helpful in producing the guidebook. In order to involve the greatest number of interested parties in the process, a three-tiered model of interaction was created. A small group of representatives, one from each of the seven state education agencies and two from The Regional Laboratory, met to draft a plan for the development of the materials; to review the findings from research, literature, and practice; to determine common assumptions and beliefs regarding teacher induction; to generate the components it felt should be included in the training materials; to create a possible format for the information; and to develop a draft resource and training guide for mentoring.

At the same time, standing groups in two states provided input and feedback on the proposed plans or drafts of materials for the guidebook. Prior to finalizing each portion of the guide, the draft was piloted in eight schools/districts or collaboratives in six states (see pages v and vi), reviewed by experts and practitioners in the field (see page vii), revised, and revised again. Through these processes, mentors, new and experienced teachers, administrators, and representatives of higher education experimented with the text and activities, suggested revisions, developed activities, and recommended additional resources.

Although much care and effort has gone into developing this guidebook, it is only a beginning. As we reflect upon the usefulness of the training in a variety of settings, new thoughts and procedures will emerge. As teaching is an ever-evolving process, we assume this guidebook will be shaped and changed by those who use it.

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INTRODUCTION

Basic Assumptions and Beliefs

Prior to developing the guidebook, it was important for us to agree upon our underlying assumptions and beliefs, a definition for the term "mentor," the roles of a mentor, and the reasons why mentoring new teachers in schools is important. Through a wider conversation with practitioners in our pilot sites, we refined and improved the foundation upon which we built the information, activities, and resources offered in this guide.

Although no lists of assumptions and beliefs concerning mentoring programs should stand as complete and unchallenged, we believe the following:

- The growth and development of children and adults in schools is vitally linked.
- The initial year of teaching is part of a continuum of learning -- a link between preservice preparation and ongoing professional development.
- A school that functions as a community of learners is an ideal site for a mentoring program.
- Everyone has a vested interest in improving the educational system at all levels in order to respond to the needs of an increasingly diverse population of learners.
- The role of the teacher will continue to change along with the nature of our educational system into the twenty-first century.
- While mentoring is only one response to the induction of new teachers, it has the greatest potential for transforming the nature of schooling.

Therefore, our goals are:

- to help both new and experienced educators develop as reflective practitioners, who grow by questioning their own practice.
- to integrate a mentoring program into the fabric of a school's community by involving everyone who wishes to participate in a collaborative venture to support new teachers in ways which are mutually beneficial. Ongoing support is offered by:
  - **mentors** to their colleagues and **new teachers** to other new teachers;
  - **faculty members**, who perceive the worth of colleagues working together to enhance their professional skills, accept their responsibility in the development of new teachers, and participate in the selection of mentors;
  - **teachers' organizations** that support local and statewide initiatives because mentoring means a quality teaching force;
  - **administrators**, who are active partners in the mentoring process by providing time, public relations, and a climate for experimentation and growth in the school;

  - **school boards** that encourage mentoring by allocating funds and setting policies;
  - **faculty from teacher-preparation institutions,** who provide the initial preparation for new teachers; establish a bridge through action research to refine the effectiveness of teacher preparation, induction, and in-service programs; and assist administrators and teachers in developing mentor teacher training materials and implementing mentoring programs;
  - **parents** who understand that teachers who are learning are the best models for their children;
  - **community members and business partners** who can offer support in time and resources; and
  - **state departments of education** who can offer technical assistance while becoming more knowledgeable about how policy affects teacher learning.

- **to establish an equal collegial partnership between schools and teacher-preparation institutions** for the professional development of educators.

Therefore, mentoring programs should:

- **be responsive to the developmental needs of those they serve** and grounded in the research on teacher and adult development;
- **be primarily supportive in nature** and not linked to a formal personnel evaluation process;
- **allow mentors to assume a variety of roles** (e.g., nurturer, coach, guide, role model, learner, developer of talent, sponsor, "opener of doors," advocate, confidant);
- **improve the collegial connection** -- between mentors and newcomers, preparatory programs and schools, theory and practice, and all involved parties; and
- **become learning systems** that examine themselves, improve how they function, and add to the collective health and collaborative culture of school communities.

Who Is a Mentor and What Is a Mentor's Role?

A mentor, historically and traditionally defined, is an older, more experienced person who is committed to helping a younger, less experienced person become prepared for all aspects of life (Odell 1990a, 6).

In our context, as in Odell's traditional definition, a mentor is an experienced teacher who assists a less experienced teacher in entering the profession, or an experienced teacher in making a transition from another subject, grade level, building, or community. This individual is skilled in his or her craft, able to reflect upon his or her practice, receptive to learning new information about the process of teaching, and willing to take risks in order to grow.

This person wants to be a mentor because he or she is concerned with the optimal learning outcomes of all students, capable of and interested in working with adults, and committed to the teaching profession.

The literature is replete with descriptions of the role of a mentor. In supporting a new teacher, a mentor:

- protects, sponsors, promotes, and "opens doors";
- teaches, coaches, challenges, consults, advises, and counsels;
- provides a positive role model;
- relieves the negative concerns of the new teacher and guides him or her "toward concerns that will potentiate rather than inhibit excellent teaching" (Odell 1990a, 14); and
- guides the new teacher "to more sophisticated stages of concern and cognitive development" (Odell 1990a, 14).

We believe, as Odell does, that the ultimate goal of a mentoring relationship is having new teachers "emerge as automentors." In essence, at the end of a formal mentoring relationship, new teachers have "become capable of mentoring themselves in a comprehensive manner" (Odell 1990a, 10).

Why Is Mentoring Important?

> Teachers are assigned a group of students, given the key to a classroom, introduced to their colleagues in a faculty meeting, and expected to teach. . . . Teaching is one of few professions in which the novice is expected to assume full responsibility from the first day on the job (Hall 1992, 53).
>
> In most professions, the challenge of the job increases over time as one acquires experience and expertise. In teaching, we've had it reversed. Typically, the most challenging situation a teacher experienced was in his or her first year (Glickman 1990, vii).

The literature supports mentoring programs as one means to ease a new teacher's transition from his or her preservice experience to the professional world of teaching. Huling-Austin has identified five purposes for teacher induction programs:

- to improve teaching performance;
- to increase the retention of promising beginning teachers;
- to promote the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers;
- to satisfy mandated requirements for induction and/or licensure; and
- to transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers (Huling-Austin 1990, 539).

We believe that properly planned and implemented mentoring programs can meet these goals and reach beyond them.

The Importance of Providing Support in That First Pivotal Year

Becoming an excellent teacher is a continuous process -- initiated by a decision to become a teacher; bolstered by gaining knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values generally required of all teachers in preservice preparation programs; refined by practice during induction at a specific site; and further honed by professional development activities throughout a teacher's career (Dubea 1990). In this continuum, the transition year is pivotal for new teachers as they assume the overall responsibility for the education of a classroom of children. It is in this year that they will adopt habits regarding continual professional development and will determine whether they will continue to teach.

> The voice of a new teacher late in the first semester . . .
>
> Sometimes I wonder if I really am cut out for teaching. I mean, I still love the kids, but I never seem to get everything done. Even when I think I am prepared for class, it seems like I always forget something. I'm also finding that I'm not able to do much of anything with Teresa. She has a hard time with reading. She is okay in cooperative activities when other students are helping her, but when she is asked to complete a task on her own . . . no way. When I go over to spend time with her, it always takes longer than I want it to take. After a few minutes with Teresa, some of the other students are off the wall. I feel like I am able to teach to the whole group fairly well, but when I'm working with one student, like Teresa, I lose control of the class.

The pressure of having full responsibility for a group of students, adjusting to a new environment, lacking clarity in expectations, and feeling isolated can be overwhelming to a new teacher. "In many cases, beginning teachers have been known to lose self-confidence, experience extreme stress and anxiety, and question their own competence as teachers and people" (Huling-Austin 1990, 536).

Perhaps the most damaging evidence against the traditional practice of "sinking or swimming" in the first year is the following conclusion from the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study conducted by the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

> We are reasonably certain that a substantial number of teachers are shaped by the experiences of the transition period and that some number of them never change from that point on. . . . We think that some of the resistance to in-service activities, to curriculum development activities, to other efforts to improve the complexity and level of teaching, are born out of the experience of having survived the transitional period -- essentially alone (Peterson 1982, 63).

This solitary survival may lead new teachers to resort to coping strategies that "can crystallize into teaching styles that will be utilized throughout an entire career" (Huling-Austin 1990, 536). In order to survive, they discard promising, newly learned instructional strategies, and may revert to teaching as they themselves were taught.

Support from an experienced teacher can help to improve a new teacher's confidence and enable that teacher to develop more complex coping strategies. Brooks (1987) reports that new teachers in one induction program noted increased feelings of competence, motivation, belonging, support, and attention. Further, Odell's research has shown that "the teacher induction context may produce new teachers who are characterized as being more motivated to continue teaching, more open to receipt of support, and more focused on the instructional process during their initial teaching year" (Odell 1989, 49-50).

The Importance of the Mentoring Experience for Mentors

The voice of a veteran teacher . . .

> Recently John Reque, who teaches in one of this country's most prestigious public school districts, reflected on his 31 years in the classroom: "I am a 53-year-old high school English teacher who quietly wonders if anyone cares, if he really makes a difference, if there's been much point to 31 years in the classroom" (Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1987, 65).

Research shows beneficial outcomes for mentor teachers. Mentors indicate that the role:

- offers them opportunities to share information about teaching practice;
- enables them to define the rationale for their own teaching more clearly and increases their own self-awareness and growth;
- offers them information about the teaching and learning process;
- provides them with information about working effectively as mentors;
- gives them experience in practicing communication skills that generalize to other interactions in their professional lives;
- gives them satisfaction and pride in observing their protégé's growth and ability to focus on goals; and
- gives them knowledge that the school has gained strength through involvement of their new teachers (Arin-Krupp 1984).

More recently, Odell (1989) substantiated many of Arin-Krupp's findings as well as discovered that mentors became increasingly aware of the diversity across school settings. Killion (1990) identified four significant outcomes for mentors: growth, recognition, experience-enhancing roles, and collegiality. Each of these outcomes is more fully described below:

- ■ Growth -- Mentors are required to reflect upon their own practice in assisting new teachers. They are compelled to examine themselves and their beliefs about teaching. This inquiry, essential for professional development, aids mentors to better define their own philosophy.
- ■ Recognition -- Selection as a mentor usually means recognition of an accomplished status in a profession that offers little role differentiation. The role of mentor confers a certain expert designation and acknowledges that those chosen have the qualities to make a significant contribution to the profession.
- ■ Experience-enhancing roles -- The adoption of the mentoring role requires the acquisition of new knowledge, skills, and dispositions. These experience-enhancing roles

include resource specialist, consultant, facilitator, coach, and others. Mentors become educational leaders who model effective personal and professional behaviors for beginning teachers and other colleagues.

- Collegiality -- Mentors can become catalysts for a newfound sense of collegiality in schools. By organizing and connecting persons who can help the new teacher, mentors can facilitate collaboration and break the cycle of isolation in schools (Killion 1990).

Huberman's research on the career development of teachers found that 43 percent of his sample of 160 secondary teachers in Switzerland considered leaving teaching at some point in their career. Although approximately 50 percent of the reasons for this self-doubt were institutional, Huberman believes the problem most likely lies with a lack of "quality in the workplace" -- factors such as opportunities for instructional leadership, collegial exchange, and professional development (Huberman 1989, 45). The results of Arin-Krupp's, Odell's, and Killion's research substantiate the fact that mentoring can inject stimulation and challenge into the lives of experienced teachers.

The Impact of Mentoring on the Retention of New Teachers

Schlechty and Vance (1983) have estimated that 30 percent of new teachers entering the profession do not teach beyond two years. A statewide needs assessment in Indiana in 1987 reported that 26.5 percent of new teachers who entered teaching dropped out within two years, and that 62 percent of the state's new teachers left teaching within five years (Summers 1987). These figures compare to an overall teacher turnover rate of 6 percent per year (Huling-Austin 1990).

Several research studies have documented a clear link between support for new teachers and their retention:

- Of 18 new elementary teachers who participated in a mentor teacher program in New Mexico, all said they would still decide to teach if they had that decision to make again (Odell 1989, 47).
- In Project CREDIT, conducted by Indiana State University, all of the first-year teachers who participated in a mentor teacher program expressed their intention to continue teaching (Summers 1987, 34).
- Of 100 beginning teachers who were mentored in the University of Alabama's First-Year Teacher Pilot Program, 96 percent taught for a second year. Of the 100 beginning teachers in a nonmentored control group in the same study, only 80 percent returned for another year (Blackburn 1977).

In terms of longer-term retention rates, the following has been documented:

- Ninety-six (96) percent of the beginning teachers who received mentoring in a Nebraska program were teaching four years later (Hegler and Dudley 1986).
- In June 1990, districts that had participated in New York's Mentor Teacher Internship Program reported that 73 percent of the beginning teachers who were mentored in 1986-87, 79 percent of those mentored in 1987-88, and 82 percent of those mentored in 1988-

89 were still teaching *in their internship districts* (New York State Education Department 1991, 1).

It appears that teacher induction programs "potentially hold a great deal of promise for retaining greater numbers of beginning teachers in the profession and thus reduce the waste of resources and human potential associated with unnecessarily high teacher attrition during the beginning years" (Huling-Austin 1989, 21).

The Impact of Mentoring on Reflective Practice and Collegiality

In a world that is constantly changing, the importance of instilling the practice of reflection in adult and child learners cannot be understated. Yet, reflection among children will not be achieved until the role models in their lives are critical thinkers. A reflective attitude is defined as a way of thinking about teaching and learning that involves making rational and ethical choices and assuming responsibility for those choices (Goodman 1984; Ross 1987; Zeichner and Liston 1987, cited in Kilgore, Ross, and Zbikowski 1990, 28).

It will be essential for new teachers to establish a vast instructional repertoire in an attempt to meet the needs of all their students. Opportunities to analyze and reflect upon their developing practice is primary to helping new teachers develop a rationale for their teaching as well as a personalized style. The advice of experienced, trusted teachers can make a difference. They can help new teachers become more self-reliant in their teaching sooner, allowing them to focus more attention on the learning needs of their students.

An induction program supports new teachers and fosters collegiality within the school community. For too long, many schools have operated in the "egg crate" model of education in which each teacher's room is a cell apart from the others and little conversation about practice is heard. Mentoring provides a model of collegiality: observing each other work, dialoguing about practice, and making improvements in practice. An induction program that has the support of all members of the school community has the potential for creating a climate for positive educational change for all.

At a time when the student population is becoming more diverse, the number of minority teachers entering the profession is decreasing. A mentoring program that provides guidance and support to all teachers may encourage those from underrepresented groups to remain in the profession and enable them to induce other members of these groups to choose teaching as their profession.

New and experienced teachers will need to gain an awareness of the cultural and linguistic differences in their students and their colleagues, their diverse needs, and a repertoire of strategies to meet those differences. Experienced teachers, as well as new teachers -- regardless of which one is a member of an underrepresented group -- can learn much from one another in terms of world view, experiences, beliefs, styles, and abilities.

Currently, few institutions of higher education require their graduates to take a course dealing with linguistic, cultural, or socioeconomic diversity. Banks (1986) has proposed six stages in which teachers need training related to their positions on a spectrum of personal awareness:

- cultural-psychological captivity -- individuals internalize beliefs about their own ethnic group;
- cultural encapsulation -- individuals practice ethnocentric separatism;
- cultural identity clarification -- individuals accept themselves and have clarified their attitudes toward their ethnic group;
- biculturalism -- individuals have skills and attitudes to participate in two ethnic or cultural groups;
- multiculturalism and reflective nationalism -- individuals have reflective knowledge about their ethnic and national identities and the ability to function in a range of groups; and
- globalism and global competency -- individuals have reflective and positive identifications and the ability to function in a range of groups (Piper 1988, 5-16).

Cross-cultural expertise can only be acquired in "vivo" experience (e.g., interpersonal communication with members of different groups) (Gudykunst, Hammer, and Wiseman 1977). A mentoring program, if structured with a goal of increased awareness of diversity in students and educators, may not achieve these six stages, but it can enable an exchange of world views, experiences, beliefs, styles, and abilities to occur. This modeling of interethnic, interracial collaboration can only benefit students by increasing a teacher's level of comfort in working with a diverse group of learners and expanding upon his or her teaching repertoire.

Conclusion

We believe that mentoring is a vehicle that can make a new teacher's first year or an experienced teacher's transition from one grade to another or to a new school more rewarding; enhance the professional development and retention of new and experienced teachers; promote reflective practice and collegiality; and increase awareness of the richness of diversity in our schools. We hope that the narratives, activities, and suggested resources that follow will be helpful to you in tailoring a mentoring program to fit your needs.

— Vignette —

Informational meeting for all those interested in applying for the role of MENTOR TEACHER in the district's new Beginning Teacher Support Program . . .

The words in the announcement precipitate a flood of thought and feeling about this career I chose 11 years ago. My first reaction is – what took so long? I am a good teacher: I have a vast repertoire of skills that I use each year to put together a dynamic program around the learning needs of my students. I continually think about what I do in an effort to get better. I have a good rapport with my students, colleagues, parents, and others in the community. I enjoy the role of being an advocate for the kids and the school.

But it wasn't always this way. There have been many times when I doubted myself and wondered if I would ever become a competent teacher. Most of that shakiness happened that first year in the classroom. There were many days when I wanted to quit: the discipline problems, the endless hours of planning, the piles of paperwork, the fear of those administrative evaluations, the concerns of parents, and the loneliness of just me and the kids. It was all overwhelming! I remember how I felt I had to prove myself and how difficult it was to ask for help.

If it were not for the help of a few people, I would not be teaching today. Mr. Rafferty, next door, helped show me the ropes – how the school expected things to operate and what I needed to do for the office. He even let his presence be known a few times to a couple of my tougher students. I didn't want him to know I was struggling, but I was always assured that he was next door if I needed him. The principal, Mr. Alvarez, would offer suggestions after his observations – and they were usually good ones. However, I was always so uptight about the evaluative role he played that I couldn't tell him how difficult it was for me. I would often call or stop to see Valerie, my friend from college. She and I were a couple of the lucky ones in our graduating class who got teaching positions in the area. We would do the best we could to help each other, but much of it was commiserating over how hard it was. And then, in March, when she told me she was going to quit and take a job the following year in her father's business, I was devastated. If someone as talented and committed as she had seemed to be couldn't make it, what was I doing in this role? I've since seen many enthusiastic, capable young teachers become disillusioned and leave the profession.

I think that first call I reluctantly made to Dr. Washburn at the university was a lifesaving step. She seemed to understand my plight and listened patiently to my problems. She lamented the fact that her schedule didn't allow her more than a couple of visits. However, those two visits and her subsequent suggestions made a world of difference. Just being reassured that the first year was the toughest somehow helped me to hang on. I made so many mistakes and resorted to so many strategies that I told myself I would never use.

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A new teacher today has many more complex issues to deal with than when I became a teacher. We have an increasingly diverse student population. We're just beginning to learn how to meet the needs of kids from a variety of cultures. And the continuing challenge of integrating students with special needs into our classrooms remains difficult. These are concerns of all teachers, rookies and veterans. Will a mentoring program help us deal with those concerns?

All of us will have to approach these changes together. My experience has shown me that changes are tough to make in schools. Change meets resistance from individuals and from the system itself. I wonder what kind of thinking has gone into preparing for the changes that will arise from a Beginning Teacher Support Program.

So, a Beginning Teacher Support Program? If it's done right, it could make such a difference! We could help those bright, idealistic, new teachers succeed with their progressive ideas sooner and do more than just survive that first year. We could offer them encouragement, understanding, and feedback that would help them feel as if they belonged to a wonderful profession. We could allow their fresh perspective to renew our commitment to teaching. As it now stands, we give them the toughest teaching assignments and stand back to watch them sink or swim. We lose a lot when we lose a new teacher. We can do better! Teaching is a people profession. We should bring out the best in others.

I wonder if I have what it takes to become a mentor for new teachers. I've certainly received some recognition for my teaching abilities. My colleagues seek me out once in awhile for suggestions and ideas around units they're working on. I've enjoyed the cooperating teacher role that I've assumed for a few student teachers. I've always enjoyed welcoming new teachers to our school, and informally I've made myself available to them. Jean, one of my current team members, is still thanking me for the little things she claims I did for her when she first came here. The invitation last semester to lead a workshop team on creative classroom discipline in the neighboring school district felt exciting. I really enjoy working with teachers and feel I can be of help. Besides, I sense that I need a next step in my career. Sure the classroom and the kids are still important to me, but it's not just the kids anymore. I think I have some responsibility to the profession, too. If we're ever going to be recognized publicly as more than a quasiprofession, we need to help each other become the best we can be. I need to keep growing, or I'll get complacent like some of my colleagues.

Yet, there's an ambivalence in me. Taking on a new significant role appeals to my need for growth and recognition, but the fear of the snide comments from my current colleagues inhibits my risk taking. Would I be jeopardizing the relationships I've developed at this school site by applying for a new role in the school system? Maybe those who don't recall and understand the importance of guiding and assisting new teachers aren't worth considering as colleagues. Maybe that fear is unfounded. The peer coaching program that we began planning last semester certainly received much interest and support. If we're ready to establish those kinds of collegial relationships, we are also probably ready to provide support people for new teachers. Maybe I could help organize a collective support team for each new teacher so that everyone in the school somehow gets involved in helping beginning teachers.

I really don't even know enough about mentoring relationships to understand what might be required. Do I even have the necessary skills? I've read enough to have a general idea of the role, but I don't know all the responsibilities that I might assume. How might I match up with new teachers? How formal or informal will the relationship be? How long will my involvement last with the new teacher? What kind of compensation and time will be offered to mentors? I surely can't provide a lot of help without more time. There must be many different ways to proceed exemplified in a variety of mentoring programs. I hope this is just a support program and not an assessment system. I don't think I could be a very effective mentor if I had to formally evaluate.

I wonder what preparation will be provided and by whom? My interpersonal skills are okay, but can always stand a little sharpening. My experience as a cooperating teacher is certainly useful, but I've always felt that supervision is an area about which I need to know more. I am a good teacher, and I feel that I can confidently walk into almost any classroom and model good teaching. That's worth something. I do love to talk about teaching, with anybody, and to keep getting better at what I do. I read a couple of education journals pretty regularly to keep abreast of the new trends. (No profession seems to have as many trends as education!) Yet, it seems to me that anyone responsible for successfully introducing a beginner to this professional world ought to have some very well-developed talents and some time to carry out those duties. I certainly can't teach full-time and assume additional duties. The sponsorship of a new professional is an extremely important role. It seems that potentially, I could learn as much about myself and my own teaching as the new teacher.

That's probably the best argument for going to the informational meeting. Improving the quality of teaching will improve the quality of student learning. My classes over the last 11 years are proof of that. As I have become a better teacher, my students have learned more, better. I don't know what the research says, but I have my own clinical proof – a collection of anecdotes of successful student learning. Isn't that, after all, why the best teachers keep at it year after year? Aren't those the rewards of this work? If I can help new teachers get through the "survival" stage sooner and focus on student learning earlier in their careers – that would be an accomplishment!

The benefits of mentoring to everyone seem obvious. To the beginning teacher, being assisted to reflect and analyze his or her classroom behaviors seems vital. It's also pretty clear to me that the mentor could learn a lot as well. Mutual participation in this endeavor can only help me learn new skills and reassess my own teaching behavior and beliefs. But let's not forget why most of us got into this business in the first place – the students. Mentoring is probably just good teaching. And good teaching works at any level with anybody.

If mentoring in this Beginning Teacher Support Program can promote collegial discussions and planning about the betterment of education for students, new teachers, and veterans like myself, then I'm making a decision right here to go to that informational meeting and learn more.

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GUIDE TO THE GUIDE: HOW DO YOU USE THIS GUIDEBOOK?

How Is the Guide Organized?

The guide is divided into five chapters:

- Understanding Critical Components of a Mentoring Program
- Developing a Mentoring Program
- Preparing Mentor Teachers
- Statistics and Stories
- The Launch: Teacher Induction as the Crucial Stage of the Professional Development Journey

Each chapter provides:

- a brief review of the research and literature on that topic;
- activities; and
- a list of resources.

The first chapter discusses adult learning and development, reflective practice, change, and diversity -- the four major strands that influenced our thinking in the preparation of the guide. The second chapter presents an overview of the goals for a mentoring program; a discussion of the critical components involved in planning and implementing a mentoring program, including the needs of new teachers and mentors; and a review of the roles and responsibilities of the individuals and organizations that enable a mentoring program to work. The third chapter addresses the training of mentor teachers (e.g., communication skills; observation, documentation, and conferencing skills; current theory about what constitutes excellent teaching). Evaluation of the effectiveness of a mentoring program is discussed in the fourth chapter. The final chapter discusses mentoring in the context of a district's professional development activities.

How Might the Guide Be Used?

Given your own context, you may need to choose carefully which sections and activities in the guide will serve your needs. Rather than advising you on how to use this guide, we, the authors, believe that you are best able to construct a framework and use the guide to best serve the needs of those with whom you will work. We view our role as one that suggests text and activities that might best serve you in several structures for initial mentor workshops and, at the same time, invites you to consider a better framework, if needed, to rework both the sequence and structure of the activities. Even at a distance, we see this as a collegial effort.

This document is an evolving manuscript created in response to the need to support teaching practice. As such, it will continue to change as a result of that practice.

We recognize that time and financial resources will influence when and how often workshops will occur. Yet, regardless of these issues, we strongly encourage that the following general principles be at the core of any and all workshops:

- The term *training* is used throughout this book in an attempt to create a common understanding of its purpose. Training in this context, however, does not refer to a "doing something to someone" form of staff development. Rather, it refers to an opportunity for personal and professional reflection, understanding oneself and another, conceptual understanding, skill development, and collaborating with colleagues to awaken one's voice.
- Becoming a mentor is like becoming a teacher -- it is an evolving process. The time, human, and financial resources required to effectively support and assist mentors is substantial. When these resources are limited it will be important to ask, and respond to, the question "How can we most meaningfully prepare teachers to become mentors, given the resources available to us?" Your response can contribute significantly to the successful practice of mentoring.
- Facilitators who are using this guidebook should be familiar with its contents. Each chapter and its accompanying activities are interdependent and simultaneously inform the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist the facilitator in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with the facilitator as the primary audience.

When we piloted the guidebook, members of the teams from districts and institutions of higher education in the Northeast suggested that we provide this guide to the guide. They also recommended that we outline two-, three-, and five-day workshop sessions for mentors or multiconstituent planning groups that might help project planners or coordinators plan their workshops. We found it necessary to identify the recommended audience for each activity and the strand(s) of mentor preparation that each activity addresses. The five strands are:

- **Understanding Oneself and Others:** In the context of education as a people business, how can understanding oneself and others develop reflective mentors?
- **Conceptual Understanding:** If research is to inform educational practice, how can theoretical concepts from current research be applied to the mentor role?
- **Skill Development:** As educators new to the mentor role, what skills are needed to encourage the growth of new teachers?
- **Collaborating with Colleagues:** As educational institutions change, how does mentoring enhance collegiality and foster school reform?
- **Awakening One's Voice:** As exemplars of their practice, how do mentors critically reflect upon their personal and professional culture and muster the courage to respond?

Figure I.1 on page xxiii presents the recommended audience and the strand(s) of mentor preparation that each activity in the guidebook addresses. **Figure I.2** on page xxvii suggests two-, three-, or five-day workshops for preparing mentors for their new role. **Figure I.3** on page xxix offers a series of activities for members of multiconstituent planning groups. These are offered only as a guide. We hope that you will adapt the sequence and activities for your particular context.

Figure I.1 The Recommended Audience(s) and Strand(s) of Mentor Preparation Addressed by Activities in the Guidebook

Recommended Audience(s)			Activities	Understanding Oneself and Others	Conceptual Understanding	Skill Development		Collaborating with Colleagues	Awakening One's Voice
Mentors	Mentor Seminar Facilitators	Project Planners/ Coordinators				Beginner	Advanced		
✓	✓	✓	1-1 Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity (60-120 minutes)	✓	✓			✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-2 Becoming Acquainted with Stage Theories (60-120 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓		1-3 Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1 (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓		1-4 Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2 (60 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-5 Generation of Developmental Sequence of Observable Teacher Behaviors (45 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-6 Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Characteristics and Developmental Levels (120 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-7 Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Supports and Challenges (60-90 minutes)	✓			✓	✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-8 Developing an Action Plan to Link Supports and Challenges to Identified Teacher Characteristics (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
✓	✓		1-9 Reflection -- Understanding Technical and Critical Reflection (70-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓	✓	✓	1-10 Making Research Real (60-120 minutes)	✓		✓			✓
✓	✓	✓	1-11 Keeping a Journal for Collegial Dialogue (60 minutes)	✓		✓			✓
✓	✓		1-12 Change Begins with Each of Us (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓			1-13 Open-Ended Questions (60 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓

Figure I.1 The Recommended Audience(s) and Strand(s) of Mentor Preparation Addressed by Activities in the Guidebook (continued)

Recommended Audience(s)			Activities	Understanding Oneself and Others	Conceptual Understanding	Skill Development		Collaborating with Colleagues	Awakening One's Voice
Mentors	Mentor Seminar Facilitators	Project Planners/ Coordinators				Beginner	Advanced		
✓			1-14 Stages of Concern about Mentoring (60 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓			1-15 Mentors as Change Agents (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	
✓			1-16 Becoming a Mentor: A Personal Needs Assessment and Growth Plan (60-120 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-17 Exploring Diversity, Part 1 (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-18 Exploring Diversity, Part 2 (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	1-19 Facing Diversity (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
		✓	2-1 Building the Foundation (90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	
	✓	✓	2-2 Developing a Mentoring Program (60-120 minutes)		✓			✓	
		✓	2-3 Onward and Upward: Developing a Mission Statement for a Mentoring Program (few hours or few days)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓		✓	2-4 Teachers and Administrators: What Are Their Roles? (60-120 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓		✓	2-5 What Makes a Good Mentor? (40 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓		✓	2-6 Teachers' Needs (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓		✓	2-7 A Closer Look at Your Mentoring Site: Driving Forces and Restraining Forces (60 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
		✓	2-8 Developing an Action Plan for the Implementation of a Mentoring Program (several sessions up to 120 minutes each)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓		✓	2-9 Say When: The Mentor's Gift of Time (60 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓

Figure I.1 The Recommended Audience(s) and Strand(s) of Mentor Preparation Addressed by Activities in the Guidebook (continued)

Recommended Audience(s)			Activities	Understanding Oneself and Others	Conceptual Understanding	Skill Development		Collaborating with Colleagues	Awakening One's Voice
Mentors	Mentor Seminar Facilitators	Project Planners/ Coordinators				Beginner	Advanced		
✓	✓	✓	3-1 Preparing Mentor Teachers (60-120 minutes)	✓	✓			✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	3-2 All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories (60 minutes or more)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	3-3 Understanding and Celebrating Diversity (60-120 minutes)	✓	✓			✓	✓
✓			3-4 Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor (90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓			3-5 Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors (90 minutes)	✓			✓		✓
✓	✓	✓	3-6 Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself (30 minutes initially)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓			3-7 Setting Expectations (60 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓			3-8 The Nitty Gritty: What Do New Teachers Really Need to Know in Our Schools? (90 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓			3-9 I'd Like You to Meet . . . : Introducing the School Community (90 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	3-10 Charting New Teachers' Needs (60-120 minutes for each meeting)	✓			✓	✓	
✓		✓	3-11 A Wrinkle in Time (45-60 minutes)	✓			✓		✓
✓			3-12 Planning Classroom Lessons (90-180 minutes)			✓		✓	
✓			3-13 "Debriefing" Classroom Lessons (60-90 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	✓
✓		✓	3-14 We're Ready to Help: A Collegial Collection of Resources for New Teachers (60-90 minutes)	✓		✓		✓	
✓	✓		3-15 Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms (150-180 minutes)		✓	✓		✓	

Figure I.1 The Recommended Audience(s) and Strand(s) of Mentor Preparation Addressed by Activities in the Guidebook (continued)

Recommended Audience(s)			Activities	Understanding Oneself and Others	Conceptual Understanding	Skill Development		Collaborating with Colleagues	Awakening One's Voice
Mentors	Mentor Seminar Facilitators	Project Planners/ Coordinators				Beginner	Advanced		
✓			3-16 Nuts and Bolts (10-40 minutes per module)		✓	✓	✓	✓	
✓	✓		3-17 The Five-Minute University (105-135 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	
✓	✓	✓	3-18 Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership (75 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	
✓			3-19 Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels (90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓	✓	
✓			3-20 Revolving Doors: A Videotape Reflection Cycle (120 minutes)	✓			✓		✓
✓	✓	✓	3-21 Beyond Fashion: The Instructional Leadership Style of Best Fit (120 minutes)	✓	✓		✓		✓
✓	✓	✓	3-22 Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution (120 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓	✓	✓	3-23 Are You Listening? (120 minutes)	✓	✓	✓			✓
✓	✓	✓	3-24 More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓		✓
✓	✓	✓	3-25 Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People (120 minutes)	✓	✓	✓		✓	
✓			3-26 In a Jam: How to Advocate for a New Teacher (90 minutes)	✓			✓		✓
✓		✓	3-27 Resolving Potential Conflicts (60-90 minutes)	✓	✓		✓		✓
		✓	4-1 Documenting Statistics and Stories (90-180 minutes)		✓			✓	
✓	✓	✓	5-1 Mentoring Models the Best of Professional Growth (90 minutes)		✓			✓	✓

Figure I.2 Structure for Initial Mentor Workshops

2-Day Mentor Workshop		3-Day Mentor Workshop	
DAY 1	Activity 1-1 60-120 minutes Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity Activity 3-2 60 minutes or more All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories Activity 2-6 60-90 minutes Teachers' Needs Activity 2-5 40 minutes What Makes a Good Mentor? Activity 3-1 60-120 minutes Preparing Mentor Teachers	**DAY 1**	Activity 1-1 60-120 minutes Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity Activity 3-2 60 minutes or more All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories Activity 3-8 90 minutes The Nitty Gritty: What Do New Teachers Really Need to Know in Our Schools? Activity 2-5 40 minutes What Makes a Good Mentor? Activity 3-6 30 minutes initially Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself
DAY 2	Activity 3-6 30 minutes initially Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself Activity 3-15 150-180 minutes Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms Activity 3-17 105-135 minutes The Five-Minute University Wrap-up Evaluation on Newsprint	**DAY 2**	Activity 3-1 60-120 minutes Preparing Mentor Teachers Activity 3-15 150-180 minutes Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms Activity 3-17 105-135 minutes The Five-Minute University
		DAY 3	Activity 1-3 60-90 minutes Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1 Activity 1-4 60 minutes Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2 Activity 3-19 90 minutes Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels or Activity 3-18 75 minutes Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership Activity 1-16 60-120 minutes Becoming a Mentor: A Personal Needs Assessment and Growth Plan Wrap-up Evaluation on Newsprint

Figure I.2 Structure for Initial Mentor Workshops (continued)

5-Day Mentor Workshop			
DAY 1	Activity 1-1	60-120 minutes	Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity
	Activity 3-2	60 minutes or more	All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories
	Activity 3-8	90 minutes	The Nitty Gritty: What Do New Teachers Really Need to Know in Our Schools?
	Activity 2-5	40 minutes	What Makes a Good Mentor?
	Activity 3-6	30 minutes initially	Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself
DAY 2	Activity 3-1	60-120 minutes	Preparing Mentor Teachers
	Activity 3-15	150-180 minutes	Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms
	Activity 3-17	105-135 minutes	The Five-Minute University
DAY 3	Activity 1-3	60-90 minutes	Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1
	Activity 1-4	60 minutes	Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2
	Activity 3-19	90 minutes	Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels
or	Activity 3-18	75 minutes	Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership
	Activity 1-16	60-120 minutes	Becoming a Mentor: A Personal Needs Assessment and Growth Plan
DAY 4	Activity 3-16	10-40 minutes/module	Nuts and Bolts (allow for at least 3 module selections)
	Activity 3-21	120 minutes	Beyond Fashion: The Instructional Leadership Style of Best Fit
	Activity 3-3	60-120 minutes	Understanding and Celebrating Diversity
	Activity 1-9	70-90 minutes	Reflection – Understanding Technical and Critical Reflection
or	Activity 1-11	60 minutes	Keeping a Journal for Collegial Dialogue
DAY 5	Activity 1-17	60-90 minutes	Exploring Diversity, Part 1
or	Activity 1-18	60-90 minutes	Exploring Diversity, Part 2
or	Activity 1-19	60-90 minutes	Facing Diversity
or	Activity 3-4	90 minutes	Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor
	Activity 3-22	120 minutes	Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution
	Activity 3-24	60-90 minutes	More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages
or	Activity 3-26	90 minutes	In a Jam: How to Advocate for a New Teacher
or	Activity 3-25	120 minutes	Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People
	Activity 3-7	60 minutes	Setting Expectations
or	Activity 2-9	60 minutes	Say When: The Mentor's Gift of Time
or	Activity 1-10	60-120 minutes	Making Research Real
	Wrap-up Evaluation on Newsprint		

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Figure I.3 Suggested Activities for Multiconstituent Planning Groups

Initial Activities		
Activity 2-1	Building the Foundation	90 minutes
Activity 2-6	Teachers' Needs	60-90 minutes
Activity 2-5	What Makes a Good Mentor?	40 minutes
Activity 1-1	Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity	60-120 minutes
Activity 2-3	Onward and Upward: Developing a Mission Statement for a Mentoring Program	Few hours or few days
Activity 3-1	Preparing Mentor Teachers	60-120 minutes
Activity 2-4	Teachers and Administrators: What Are Their Roles?	80-120 minutes
Activity 2-8	Developing an Action Plan for the Implementation of a Mentoring Program	Several sessions up to 120 minutes each
Activity 4-1	Documenting Statistics and Stories	60-120 minutes
Activity 3-10	Charting New Teachers' Needs	60-120 minutes for each meeting
Activity 1-10	Making Research Real	60-120 minutes
Activity 3-2	All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories	60 minutes or more
Activity 5-1	Mentoring Models the Best of Professional Growth	90 minutes
Follow-up Activities		
Activity 1-5	Generation of Developmental Sequence of Observable Teacher Behaviors	45 minutes
Activity 1-7	Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Supports and Challenges	80-90 minutes
Activity 3-3	Understanding and Celebrating Diversity	60-120 minutes
Activity 2-9	Say When: The Mentor's Gift of Time	60 minutes
Activity 3-14	We're Ready to Help: A Collegial Collection of Resources for New Teachers	60-90 minutes
Activity 3-24	More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages	60-90 minutes
Activity 3-22	Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution	120 minutes
Activity 3-25	Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People	120 minutes

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Chapter 1:

Understanding Critical Components of a Mentoring Program

Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

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Chapter 1:

Understanding Critical Components of a Mentoring Program

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Each chapter of *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators* informs the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist the facilitator in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with the facilitator as the primary audience.

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Introduction

> **There have been many times when I doubted myself and wondered if I would ever become a competent teacher. Most of that shakiness happened that first year in the classroom. There were many days when I wanted to quit: the discipline problems, the endless hours of planning, the piles of paperwork, the fear of those administrative evaluations, the concerns of parents, and the loneliness of just the kids and me. It was all so overwhelming! I remember how I felt I had to prove myself and how difficult it was to ask for help.**
>
> **Taking on a new significant role appeals to my need for growth and recognition . . . .**

As a mentor to a new teacher, you will face the challenge of facilitating the professional development of another adult while simultaneously enhancing your own growth. We believe that challenges should be accompanied by support. This chapter provides information, suggests activities, and recommends resources that will increase your knowledge of adult development, reflective practice, the change process, and issues of diversity.

By the end of this chapter, you will have increased your knowledge of:

- the characteristics of adult learners;
- theories and issues of adult development, both phase and stage theories;
- your own development and how you define the world around you;
- the importance of reflective practice to guide future action;
- the process of change in individuals and organizations; and
- diversity issues as they are expressed in schools and classrooms.

This knowledge should enhance your ability to:

- discern your own phases and stages of development;
- be empathic to the development of others;
- model and apply the theory presented in terms of adult development and reflective practice in your mentoring relationship, in relationships with other colleagues, and in your classroom with your students;
- provide appropriate support and challenges necessary for growth -- for yourself and the new teacher;
- become an active participant in individual and organizational change within your educational community; and
- explore ways of addressing issues related to diversity in a positive and constructive way.

Why Focus on Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity?

The development of adults is an ongoing process. As individuals, colleagues, teachers, or parents, we all progress on a continuum of learning that expands our knowledge, skills, and experiences throughout our lifetime. Growth and change occur through our interactions with others and with our environment, and our reflection upon those interactions.

We behave and function differently in both our personal and professional lives at different stages on this continuum or progression, as our primary focus varies. A knowledge and understanding of these differences can provide important information as you establish a mentoring relationship with a new teacher. Understanding teacher behaviors, life issues, the change process, and diversity can influence how you, as a mentor, conduct a pre- or post-observation conference, choose a leadership style that is most appropriate, and determine what issues are most relevant to the new teacher with whom you are working.

You, as a trained mentor teacher, will be able to use skillful questioning to provide opportunities for a new teacher to take a critical look at the options available in different situations. Through a mentoring relationship, you can provide the support necessary to encourage a new teacher to take risks.

While the ability to reflect is an aspect of being human, action -- based upon that reflection -- has a significant impact on the quality of being human. Acting upon our reflections signifies a risk-taking that invites us to stretch past the "comfort zone" within which most adults prefer to operate. It is when we stretch from within that we truly change and grow.

This opportunity for growth is essential. Teachers at a later stage of development have greater empathy, more flexibility, additional coping mechanisms, better adaptations to stress, better understanding of contextual and cultural differences, and a greater commitment to education (Burden 1990). They are teachers who are prepared for any situation (Clift et al. 1990). The mentoring experience, at its most effective, will enable new teachers to move more rapidly along the continuum of development and arrive at these later stages sooner (*see Activity 1-1, "Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity," on page 1-51*).

Adult Development

Just as your knowledge of child development facilitates the learning of students in your classroom, your knowledge of adult development will assist you in facilitating the professional development of a new teacher. This section attempts to briefly answer the following questions about adult development:

- What do the theorists say about adult development?
- How do these theories apply to schools, educators, and mentoring relationships?
- How does research regarding teacher development relate to adult development?
- What are the characteristics of adult learners?
- What does research say about learning styles?

What Do the Theorists Say about Adult Development?

Only in the past 25 years has inquiry investigated and supported the notion that adults do grow (Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983; Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987) and that the process of becoming an adult is a continuous one. Two strands of theory exist regarding adult development: phase theory and stage theory. Phase theorists -- Erikson, Levinson, and Gould -- "focus on major life tasks or [psychological] conflicts that stimulate growth. These tasks or conflicts emerge at relatively specific times in the life cycles," as illustrated in **Figure 1.1** on page 1-4 (Levine 1989, 57).

Stage theorists "focus on underlying patterns of thought and problem solving that play a central role in determining an individual's approach to the world" (Oja 1991, 41). They describe development as "an organic process of alternating periods of balance, transition, and reintegration, modeled upon Piaget's work in cognitive growth. According to this view, development proceeds through a series of sequentially ordered stages whose progression, in contrast to phase progressions, is *not* dependent on age" (Levine 1989, 85). Stage theorists have studied adults' moral development (Kohlberg and Gilligan), ego development -- the striving to make meaning out of their worlds (Loevinger and Kegan), and cognitive development (Perry, Hunt, Kolb, and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule) (see **Figure 1.2** on pages 1-5 through 1-7 and **Figure 1.3** on page 1-8). These stages are not permanent resting places, nor are they particularly discrete. Shifts between these stages can be prompted by different circumstances. Under stressful and nonsupportive situations, a person may move from Loevinger's conscientious stage to the self-protective stage, while positive, supportive experiences can provide the necessary conditions for a person to exhibit greater flexibility and variety or to expand his or her behavioral repertoire (see **Applying Theory to Practice A** on page 1-9).

While differences exist between phase and stage approaches, "these complementary conceptions have more to share than dispute" (Levine 1989, 85). Both phase and stage theorists believe that:

- development is an ongoing process;
- there is a definite pattern and sequence to development;
- each phase or stage offers a different frame of reference through which individuals interact and act upon their worlds;
- growth occurs through interactions between self, others, and the environment; and
- individuals play an active role in determining the course and content of their growth and are naturally inclined to growth (Levine 1989; Oja 1991).

Knowledge of where you and a new teacher are in relation to the phases and stages of adult development will assist both of you in understanding each other's behaviors and needs. As an experienced educator, you may be at a phase in which it is important for you to share with others the wisdom, knowledge, and skills acquired during your career. A new teacher, on the other hand, may be at a phase of exploration and discovery -- willing to experiment in order to formulate his or her own teaching style. You may need less structure or be able to combine reason, intuition, and the expertise of others to arrive at your own opinion, while a new teacher may need more structure and be just beginning to listen to his or her own inner voice.

Figure 1.1 Theorists' Views on the Phases of Adult Development

Theorist	Erikson	Levinson	Gould
Stimulus for Growth	Psychological conflict	Key life tasks	Age-related developmental tasks and conquering of specific childhood assumptions
Number of Phases	8	4	5
Phases of Adult Development	Young adulthood (dominant conflict is intimacy versus isolation)	Early adulthood, age 17-40 - Time of exploration and discovery, development and implementation of new skills and ideals, formation of a dream, and support of mentor (age 17-28) - Time of anxiety, confusion, and depression; time for reassessment and redirection (age 28-33) - Time of establishing oneself in society and advancing oneself in the workplace (age 33-40)	Early adulthood, age 22-28 - Time of choosing work and establishing new roles and responsibilities - Period of optimism, determination, and confidence Early adulthood, age 28-34 - Time of feeling confused and stuck - Period of depression, restlessness, questioning, and disillusionment
	Maturity (dominant conflict is generativity versus self-absorption)	Middle adulthood, age 40-65 - Time of modification of early adulthood's dream to match reality of life - Time of dealing with sense of loss that accompanies recognition of one's limitations - Time of fashioning legacy of what one wants to accomplish and for what one wants to be remembered	Middle adulthood, age 35-45 - Time of increased interest and energy for advancing in work - Time to come to terms with realities of destruction and death - Time to strive for continuity with one's past, to regain stability and commitment
	Old age (dominant conflict is integrity versus despair)	Late adulthood, age 60 and beyond - Time of preoccupation with issues of health and retirement	Later adulthood, age 50 and beyond - Time to turn inward, to move toward authenticity and generativity
Key Thoughts about the Phases of Adult Development	Successful resolution of psychological conflict at each phase results in specific capacity (i.e., resolution of intimacy versus isolation phase is the capacity to love; resolution of generativity versus self-absorption is the capacity to care; resolution of integrity versus despair phase is wisdom)	Phases are periods of building and changing, stability and transition. Phases are established for a period of 5-7 years, and followed by a period of transition or modification of approximately 5 years. Transitional periods, times of turmoil and uncertainty, take up half of an individual's lifetime.	Individuals need to continually challenge their childhood assumptions.

Source: From Sarah L. Levine, Promoting Adult Growth in Schools: The Promise of Professional Development. Copyright (c) 1989. Reprinted by permission of Allyn and Bacon, 57-82.

Figure 1.2 Theorists' Views on the Stages of Moral and Ego Development

Theorist	Key Area of Devel-opment	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Kohlberg	Moral	5	**Pre-conventional level** **Stage 1:** Self-centered orientation **Stage 2:** Aware of other individual's points of view **Conventional level** **Stage 3:** Member of group perspective, not yet society's perspective **Stage 4:** Member of society or system perspective **Post-conventional level** **Stage 5:** Able to distinguish between moral and legal point of view, but finds it difficult to define a moral perspective independent of perspective behind legal rights. or Understands and basically accepts society's rules, but acceptance is based on formulating and accepting general moral principles that underlie them.	Development of moral thinkers evolves over life cycle and can be traced to complex but definable structures. Stages are hierarchically linked -- an individual must pass through each stage to reach the next. Moral development should be intentionally stimulated.
Gilligan	Moral	3	**Level 1:** Individual's primary concern is for one's own survival in the face of powerlessness. **Level 2:** Individual seeks goodness in caring for others and values self-sacrifice as the highest virtue. **Level 3:** Individual recognizes oneself as a legitimate object of care, and this insight becomes the framework for an ethic of care.	Two moral voices can be traced in describing problems involving moral conflict and choice: the voice of justice (equality) or the voice of care (attachment or connection). Although individuals have access to both voices, they tend to focus their attention on problems of unfairness or disconnection. The two approaches constitute different ways of organizing a problem that leads to different reasoning strategies and different ways of thinking about what is happening and what to do. Moral orientation is associated with the sex of the reasoner (females focus on care, males focus on justice), the problem being solved, and the social class of the individual. Moral maturity entails an ability to see in at least two ways and speak in at least two languages -- those of care and justice.

Sources: See page 1-7.

Figure 1.2 Theorists' Views on the Stages of Moral and Ego Development (continued)

Theorist	Key Area of Devel-opment	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Loevinger	Ego	7	**Self-protective stage:** Persons at this level tend to blame others, circumstances, or parts of themselves for which they feel no responsibility. They are concerned with controlling and being controlled. **Conformist stage:** Persons at this level are preoccupied with compliance to external rules; acceptance and approval are vitally important. **Conscientious-conformist stage:** Persons at this level have a growing awareness of self, particularly of one's inner feelings. **Conscientious stage:** Persons at this level can be highly critical of themselves. Interpersonal communications are especially valued. Their sensitivity to others deepens. They are more reflective than in earlier stages, alert to choices, motivated to achieve goals, concerned with living up to ideals, and interested in self-improvement. **Individualistic stage:** Persons at this level are more tolerant of themselves and others due to recognition of individual differences and complexities. Interpersonal relationships become deeper and more intense. **Autonomous stage:** Persons at this level recognize other people's need for autonomy. They have a high tolerance for ambiguity, accept the existence of inner conflict, and concern themselves with social problems beyond their own needs and experiences. **Integrated stage:** Persons at this stage transcend conflicts and polarities. They have developed a firm sense of identity and have high respect for themselves and others.	The essence of ego is striving for meaning. Ego is a process that forms a natural barrier to change and is social in origin (i.e., interpersonal relationships are key to development). Individuals show evidence of functioning on different levels. No stage is necessarily better or more adequate than another.

Figure 1.2 Theorists' Views on the Stages of Moral and Ego Development (continued)

Theorist	Key Area of Devel-opment	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Kegan	Ego	5	**Imperial balance, stage 2:** Persons at this stage orient to themselves and the world through their own needs; they do not have a shared reality. **Interpersonal balance, stage 3:** Persons at this stage are inextricably tied to others for a sense of themselves; they avoid conflict and seek approval. **Institutional balance, stage 4:** Persons at this stage can relate to multiple others and tolerate multiple views; their sense of self control is a strength; personal achievements, competence, and responsibility are prominent; alternative strategies and mutual communication are prized. **Interindividual balance, stage 5:** Person's individuality and interdependence are prominent; persons at this level have a high degree of autonomy and capacity for interdependence.	Growth unfolds through alternating periods of stability, instability, and temporary rebalance. Emphasis is on meaning, not just traits and behaviors, that lie beneath behaviors. Opportunities and limits exist at every developmental point. Pain and exhilaration accompany transition as something is lost, but something is also gained.

Sources: Levine, Op. Cit., 1-4: 86-94.

Reprinted with permission of Holt, Rinehart, and Winston from "Moral Stages and Moralization: The Cognitive-Developmental Approach" by Lawrence Kohlberg in Thomas Lickona, ed., Moral Development and Behavior: Theory, Research, and Social Issues. (c) 1976, 33-39.

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Figure 1.3 Theorists' Views Regarding Stages of the Cognitive Development of Adults

Theorist	Number of Stages	Stages of Cognitive Development
Perry	4	**Dualism:** Individual separates knowledge into two polarities: good versus bad, right versus wrong, we versus they. Authorities have right answers, and knowledge is quantitative. **Multiplism:** Individual recognizes that diversity in opinions and values is legitimate. **Relativism**: Individual recognizes that diversity in opinions, values, and judgment can be analyzed and compared. Some opinions may be found worthless; while, in other cases, individuals may continually disagree about opinions. Knowledge becomes qualitative -- dependent on context and framework of event. **Commitment:** Individual affirms, chooses, or makes decisions regarding career, values, politics, or personal relationships.
Hunt	3	**Stage A:** Individual needs highly structured environment, thinks in categories, and believes in authorities. **Stage B:** Individual needs some control and structure, has growing awareness of difference between concrete and abstract thinking, and is more self-directed. **Stage C:** Individual needs less-structured environment; is more creative; and has greater tolerance for stress, more flexibility, and a wider array of coping mechanisms.
Kolb	3	**Acquisition:** Individual acquires basic learning abilities (concrete, reflective, abstract, and active modes) and cognitive structures. **Specialization:** Individual emphasizes certain modes of learning at expense of others. Emphasis depends on dominant contexts for learning and development (during formal education and early experiences of adulthood in one's work and personal life). **Integration:** Individual reasserts and expresses nondominant modes of learning.
Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule	5	**Silence:** Individual is unaware of self as knower, is subservient to authority, is powerless, and is dependent on others for identity. **Received knowledge:** Individual accumulates facts, and words of others become own. Individual is good follower and obedient worker, but has lack of self-esteem and creativity. **Subjective knowledge:** Individual begins to listen to own inner voice, loses trust in outside authority, and holds own experiences as primary source of truth. **Procedural knowledge:** Reason coupled with intuition and feeling predominate. Individual has two ways of knowing: separate and connected. Separate knower is concerned with principles and critical thinking procedures; connected knower is also concerned with caring, empathy, and patience. **Constructed knowledge:** Individual integrates voice, mind, and self; knows that truth is based on context in which it is embedded; and can weave reasons, intuition, and the expertise of others together.

Sources: Oja, Op. Cit., 1-7: 46-49.

Adapted with permission of ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources from "Comparison of Learning Style Inventories" by Urs Karrer. (c) 1988, 3-6.

Adapted with permission of Open University Press from Making Sense of Experiential Learning: Diversity in Theory and Practice, edited by Susan Warner Weil and Ian McGill. (c) 1989, 152.

Applying Theory to Practice A

While we may not be aware of the specific reasons behind someone's behavior, it is important to acknowledge that at certain points in time individuals may exhibit behaviors inconsistent with their usual way of operating. The following scenario describes just that:

> Frank Milton, the social studies department head, was noted for his caring manner, openness to new ideas, and his ability to effectively deal with conflict. Over the past few weeks, he had shared the rationale for teaching the Holocaust in grades 9-12 with the school committee, parent groups, and community members.
>
> One day in a faculty meeting, he was asked why he felt it appropriate that the Holocaust be taught in grades 9-12. This was just one more time that he was asked this question, yet, for some reason his former diplomatic approach was abandoned. As he rose, the usual jocularity was missing as he proceeded to speak. "I've been teaching here for 17 years and have a Master's degree and a Certificate of Advanced Study. I should know what's important for our kids to be exposed to with regard to major historical issues. Pending the school committee's decision, which seems to be positive, we will be teaching a semester course on the Holocaust next fall."
>
> As the faculty meeting adjourned, a colleague and friend of 15 years turned to another in dismay and replied, "So, that's what he's really like. I thought I knew him."

Often we find ourselves faced with the dilemma of having to deal with colleagues who for some reason display behaviors inconsistent with their usual way of operating. In the case of Frank Milton, the reasons behind his unusual behavior may be unknown, yet, that does not mean that a former and well-supported perception about him must be cast aside. Many factors may have contributed to the ebb of Frank's usual developmental frame of reference (for example, the sharing of the rationale for the course with so many different groups over the last few weeks, the hope that his colleagues would share that rationale). Being able to depersonalize unpredictable events such as the one described above allows an individual to interact with other adults in a supportive way. It is critical not to make snap judgments, but to look at one's behavior over time and in other situations.

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Although not implicit in phase theory, stage theorists believe that the "sequence of development progresses from simpler to more complex and through differentiated modes of thought and functioning. The higher stages of development are said to represent more adequate modes of functioning in the sense that they include adopting multiple points of view, more empathic role taking, and more adequate problem solving" (Oja 1991, 41). For example, as educators' cognitive skills expand, their need for structure and reliance on authority lessens; their ability to recognize and integrate diverse opinions, values, and experiences of others into their own thinking increases; and their flexibility, creativity, and coping mechanisms are enhanced.

How Do These Theories Apply to Schools, Educators, and Mentoring Relationships?

Fundamentally, theorists and educators alike believe that learning is a life-long process and that humans like learning. However, educators at different phases or stages in the learning process will have different abilities, needs, and concerns related to the tasks they face. These differences should be acknowledged and used to inform attitudes and actions to continue the processes of learning and development by both parties in a mentoring relationship (*see Activity 1-2, "Becoming Acquainted with Stage Theories," on page 1-55*).

Other than these premises, there are many implications in phase and stage theory for schools, educators, and mentoring relationships. Among these are:

- The act of making meaning out of our personal and professional lives is basic to growth. Therefore, schools must provide opportunities through which the adults within them can reflect upon and learn from their daily experiences (for example, recognizing the importance of interpersonal relationships to growth and development by encouraging the development of collegial relationships among educators or providing options for experienced teachers to guide the less experienced).
- Because adults construct their worlds very differently and these constructions may influence their understanding and behavior, incentives and supports need to be tailored to individuals at different phases and stages to promote growth.
- As growth is caused by disequilibrium, conflict, or key life tasks, schools must provide environments in which adults feel safe to share and risk.
- If growth can be intentionally stimulated in adults, then activities that will encourage that growth should be undertaken in schools (for example, Kolhberg's use of moral dilemmas, role playing, and role taking; Hunt's matching for developmental growth by placing an individual in a learning environment that is slightly more complex and demanding than the one he or she would naturally prefer; provision of support at times of challenge) (*see Activity 1-3, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1," on page 1-59; Activity 1-4, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2," on page 1-65; Activity 1-5, "Generation of Developmental Sequence of Observable Teacher Behaviors," on page 1-85; Activity 1-6, "Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Characteristics and Developmental Levels," on page 1-87; " Activity 1-7, "Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Supports and Challenges," on page 1-95; and Activity 1-8, "Developing an Action Plan to Link Supports and Challenges to Identified Teacher Characteristics," on page 1-103*).
- If teachers at higher stages of development have greater empathy, more flexibility, additional coping strategies, and a better understanding of contextual and cultural differences, then schools should provide the means to encourage adults to attain those levels of development.

Experience in North Carolina has demonstrated that stage growth can be nurtured while preparing mentors and mentor educators for their new roles. In that program, Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall found that growth occurred in planned educational programs that incorporated the following elements:

- significant role-taking experiences;
- careful reflection and reading;
- balance between action and reflection;
- continuity (i.e., setting aside substantial training time); and
- instructor support and challenge (Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987, 71).

How Does Research Regarding Teacher Development Relate to Adult Development?

Researchers have investigated the growth of teachers from the pre-teaching level to that of a "fully functioning professional" (see **Figure 1.4** on pages 1-12 through 1-15). This figure offers a sense of the continuum of growth upon which you and a new teacher are traveling. In many ways, the descriptions in the figure support some of the thinking of phase and stage theorists.

Although there is some disagreement over the number of stages involved, all researchers agree that the level of complexity increases as teachers grow from:

- concern with self and survival to a more student-centered orientation;
- insecurity to confidence in the performance of teaching duties;
- the use of a small repertoire of instructional strategies to an ever-expanding collection of strategies to meet the needs of the diverse students in their classrooms;
- a fear of change to an acceptance of it as a process of life; and
- concern with their own classroom to a commitment to the education profession and involvement in professional activities.

The research indicates that new teachers have a particular set of needs. Many first-year teachers have feelings of inadequacy and unpreparedness, limited knowledge of content and instructional strategies, limited means of how to learn about their students' individual needs, lack of information regarding procedures and policies of the school, and minimal competence in managing and organizing. What they do have is enthusiasm and energy, knowledge of the latest educational theories, and a desire to receive immediate and specific feedback. As Levinson portrayed, they may be forming a dream; establishing new roles and responsibilities; and exploring, developing, and implementing new skills and ideals (Levine 1989). (See **Applying Theory to Practice B** on page 1-16.)

Although many researchers do not perceive a connection between adult and teacher development, we believe that parallels exist. Researchers of both adult and teacher development feel that growth comes or starts from within the individual and is caused by cognitive dissonance or tension. There appears to be a hierarchical progression in teacher development that may promote adult development.

Figure 1.4 Summary of Research Findings on Stages of Teacher Development

Researcher(s)	Subject	Purpose	Findings/Stages
Unruh and Turner (1970)	Teachers	To determine periods of professional growth for teachers	**Preservice period** **Initial teaching period, 1-6 years** Has problems with discipline, routine, and organization; scoring and marking papers; and curriculum development; tries to gain acceptance from rest of staff. **Security period, roughly 6-15 years of service** Finds security in convictions and commitments. Is devoted to excellence in instruction, and seeks ways to improve background and increase personal knowledge. **Maturity period** Usually exhibits considerable depth in most phases of professional life and is likely to be highly competent and quite secure in performance of teaching duties. Change is accepted as dominant process of life rather than as threat. Recognizes and accepts concept that teacher never actually arrives.
Katz (1972)	Preschool teachers	To describe developmental stages of pre-school trainers and type of training assistance needed at each stage	**Stage 1, the survival stage** Mainly concerned with surviving, he/she realizes the discrepancy between anticipated success and classroom realities; might feel inadequate and unprepared. **Stage 2, the consolidation stage (second and third year of teaching)** Consolidates gains made in first stage. Begins to focus on individual children and differentiates specific skills and tasks to be mastered next. **Stage 3, the renewal stage (third and fourth year of teaching)** Might tire of doing same things and want to look for innovations in field. **Stage 4, the maturity stage (3 or more years of teaching)** Has come to terms with self as teacher; asks deeper and more abstract questions. Length of time teacher spends in each category can vary greatly.

Source: From "Teacher Development" by Paul R. Burden. Excerpted with permission of Macmillan Publishing Company from Handbook of Research on Teacher Education, W. Robert Houston, Editor, pp. 311-327. Copyright (c) 1990 by Association of Teacher Educators.

Figure 1.4 Summary of Research Findings on Stages of Teacher Development (continued)

Researcher(s)	Subject	Purpose	Findings/Stages
Gregorc (1973)	Teachers	To determine patterns of development	**Becoming stage** Demonstrates ambivalent commitment to teaching; develops initial concepts of purposes of education, nature of teaching, role expectations, and role of school as social organization; has limited perceptions of complexity of work environment; and feels job is to share knowledge with students, get through book, do what principal says, and be protective of students. **Growing stage** Level of commitment based on minimal expectations of school and school of him/her. Basic concepts and stereotypes of educational process, discipline, and responsibility are forming. Has increased knowledge about students' curricula, materials and equipment, and self. **Maturing stage** Makes strong commitment to education, functions beyond minimum expectations, and draws upon and contributes to varied resources of school. Reconsiders instructional objectives and alters teaching techniques, materials, and attitudes about roles played in educational process. Re-examines concepts about education, self, others, subject matter, and environment. **Fully functioning professional stage** Makes definite commitment to education profession, is immersed in process of education, and tries to realize full potential as individual teacher and as contributing member of profession. Constantly tests and restructures concepts and beliefs.
Fuller and Brown (1975)	Teachers	To propose a developmental model of teacher concerns in process of becoming teacher	**Preteaching Phase** Has no concerns; identifies realistically with pupils, only in fantasy with teachers. **Stage 2** Has concerns about survival as teacher, class control, and mastery of content. **Stage 3** Has concerns about teaching performance, limitations and frustrations of the teaching situation, and demands being made on him/her. **Stage 4** Has concerns about the learning, social and emotional needs of students, and ability to relate to students as individuals.

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Figure 1.4 Summary of Research Findings on Stages of Teacher Development (continued)

Researcher(s)	Subject	Purpose	Findings/Stages
Field (1979)	Experienced teachers	To identify stages of development	**Stage 1** Characterized by day-to-day survival, hit-or-miss solutions to problems, and intense feelings of inadequacy. **Stage 2** Expresses increased self-confidence and feelings of self-worth, has some appropriate and reliable solutions to problems, and extends boundaries of planning beyond one day at a time to weeks in advance. **Stage 3** Views learning as whole process; feels at home in classroom; sees children as people, not just pupils. Transition from one stage to another is not clear. In fact, new problems might cause teacher to regress to earlier stage, while successes might have opposite effect.
Burden (1979, 1980)	Experienced elementary teachers	To capture perceptions of stages of development	**Survival stage, first year of teaching** Reports limited knowledge of teaching, activities and environment are subject-centered, has little professional insight, lacks confidence, is unwilling to try new methods, and conforms to preconceived image of "teacher." **Adjustment stage, second through fourth year of teaching** Learns about planning and organization and children, curriculum, and methods. **Mature stage, fifth and subsequent years of teaching** Has good command of teaching activities and environment, is more child-centered, is confident and secure, is willing to try new teaching methods, gradually abandons former image of "teacher," gains professional insight, and handles most situations that arise.
Yarger and Mertens (1980)		To describe in-service programming appropriate to meet needs at each professional stage	**Stage 1, pre-education** Examines teaching career, but is not yet committed. **Stage 2, junior or senior** Makes conscious decision to commit to becoming teaching professional and develops basic teaching skills. **Stage 3, initial year of teaching** Moves from relative security of teacher training program to demands of teaching profession. Has concerns about classroom discipline, further development of pedagogical skills, and receipt of specific, immediate feedback. **Stage 4, second and third year of teaching** Concerns emerge about content and gaps in training. Starts to recognize that teaching environment continually changes. **Stage 5, 3-8 years of experience** Is apt to have completed requirements for advanced certification, tenure, and even advanced degrees. Content expertise is high priority, as well as preparation for a new professional role, for example, department chairperson, team leader, or administrator. **Stage 6, at least 8 years of experience** Carves out areas of particular strength and expertise.

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Figure 1.4 Summary of Research Findings on Stages of Teacher Development (continued)

Researcher(s)	Subject	Purpose	Findings/Stages
Sitter and Lanier (1982)	Student teachers		Expresses "commonalities" of concern; commonalities (self, survival, teaching tasks, pupil learning, materials, and curriculum development) occur simultaneously.
Adams (1982)	5-year longitudinal study of experienced teachers		Supports Fuller's early stages of concern about self and instructional tasks. Shows no significant differences in impact concerns across years of experience. Shows significant differences between elementary and secondary teachers for stages of concern about self, instructional tasks, and pupil impact. Elementary teachers report greater concerns in all three areas.
McDonald (1982)			**Transition stage** Has low sense of efficacy in elemental teaching skills, learns about pupils, and learns basic skills of managing and organizing. **Exploring stage** Has sense of efficacy in using basic skills of teaching; instruction is effectively managed. **Invention and experimenting stage** Tries major strategies, invents new strategies and techniques, seeks opportunities for development, and develops critical judgment. **Professional teaching stage** Has problem-solving skill; is able to teach other teachers to be creative.

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Applying Theory to Practice B

If we return to excerpts from the vignette at the beginning of the guidebook, we can follow that teacher's progression through the stages identified by researchers in Figure 1.2.

> *There have been many times when I doubted myself and wondered if I would ever become a competent teacher. Most of that shakiness happened that first year in the classroom. There were many days when I wanted to quit: the discipline problems, the endless hours of planning, the piles of paperwork, the fear of those administrative evaluations, the concerns of parents, and the loneliness of just the kids and me. It was all so overwhelming! I remember how I felt I had to prove myself and how difficult it was to ask for help.*

These recollections mirror the researchers' findings regarding the survival stage. The teacher, primarily concerned with self, remembered a lack of confidence, feelings of insecurity, concern about discipline, problems of organization, concerns of parents, and a sense of loneliness.

> *I am a good teacher: I have a vast repertoire of skills that allows me to put together a dynamic program each year around the learning needs of my students. I continually think about what I do in an effort to get better. I have a good rapport with my students, colleagues, parents, and others in the community.*
>
> *My experience as a cooperating teacher is certainly useful, but I've always felt that supervision is an area about which I need to know more.*
>
> *I do love to talk about teaching, with anybody, and to keep getting better at what I do. I read a couple of education journals pretty regularly to keep abreast of the new trends.*

These comments reflect a teacher in the next stage of development -- the "consolidation," "security," or "exploring" stage. The teacher recognizes his or her ability to meet the needs of individual students through an expanding repertoire of skills, seeks opportunities for professional development, and reaches out for innovations in the field.

> *I sense that I need a next step in my career. Sure, the classroom and the kids are still important to me, but it's not just the kids anymore. I think I have some responsibility to the profession, too. If we're ever going to be recognized publicly as more than a quasi profession, we need to help each other become the best we can be. I need to keep growing or I'll get complacent like some of my colleagues.*

This teacher has reached the "mature" or "fully functioning professional" stage. He or she has made a commitment to the profession and is interested in aiding other professionals to reach their potential.

> Increased complexity in one's understanding of self and the capacity to imagine multiple alternatives, typical of the higher stages of ego development, probably increase one's behavioral options and coping strategies. In addition, because the more advanced stages of ego development are characterized by increased flexibility, differentiation of feelings, respect for individuality, tolerance for conflict and ambiguity, the cherishing of interpersonal ties, and a broader social perspective, advancement in ego development would appear to stand on its own as educationally desirable for both teachers and students (Witherell and Erickson 1978, 232).

Knowing the stages of teacher development will help you to develop appropriate supports and challenges for a new teacher. The more adept you are at suggesting developmentally appropriate activities for a new teacher, the greater the likelihood that he or she will stretch to a new stage.

What Are the Characteristics of Adult Learners?

In addition to understanding a new teacher's phases and stages of development, it is important to have some knowledge of the characteristics of adult learners and adult learning styles. Knowles, an authority on the study of adult learning, has characterized adult learners as:

- "increasingly self-directed;
- experientially rich resources for their own learning;
- motivated to learn by the needs and interests generated by their social roles;
- interested in learnings that can be immediately applied; and
- problem-centered in their orientation to learning" (Walsh 1989, 2-3).

These assumptions suggest that adult learners, in this case you and a new teacher, will come to the mentoring relationship with their own goals. As self-directed learners, you will collaboratively plan, manage, and evaluate the new teacher's professional development. However, Pratt (1988) challenges Knowles' presupposition that all adults want to be self-directed in their learning. He believes that "there is reason to suspect that adults vary considerably in their desire, capability, and readiness to exert control over these functions" (Pratt 1988, 160). He posits that levels of self-direction and collaboration are dependent on three variables: the situation, the learner, and the teacher. If the situational variables dictate a teacher- or content-centered learning experience, then adult learners enter into a predetermined structure over which they have no control. In terms of the learner, research on learning style, developmental stages, cognitive development, conceptual development, and level of moral reasoning suggests that "adults come to educational situations with varying degrees of prior knowledge, experience, commitment, and self-confidence" (Pratt 1988, 163). Regarding collaboration, he notes that true collaboration involves a significant change in role and function for the teacher. Some teachers may be willing to take on this challenge, while others may not.

Knowledge of the new teacher's level of self-direction, as well as his or her prior knowledge and experience, will assist you in collaboratively planning activities that will encourage him or her to move along the continuum of professional development. This day-to-day analysis will support and modify the information about a new teacher's developmental phases, or stages, and learning styles.

What Does Research Say about Learning Styles?

Learning style has been defined by Hunt (1987) as a set of characteristics that describe "how a person receives and transmits information." Hilgersom-Volk (1987) defines learning style as "characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment."

Knowledge of a new teacher's preferred learning style is another clue as to how to ask developmentally appropriate questions and suggest appropriate activities. Many researchers, Gregorc and Hunt in particular, would say that you need to be aware of and honor your own learning styles before you can attempt to facilitate the learning of your students or of new teachers.

Four instruments have been developed to identify personality preferences or preferences in terms of adult learning styles. Each is a self-reporting instrument and provides a preferred personality or personal learning style profile for each respondent.

1. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), developed by Myers and Briggs in 1962, is based on the work of the Swiss psychologist Carl Jung. It provides a measure of an individual's personality by looking at eight personality preferences that all individuals use at different times. These personality preferences are organized into four bipolar concepts: extraversion versus introversion, sensing versus intuition, thinking versus feeling, and judgment versus perception. After answering the forced choice items on the Indicator, the four preferences of the bipolar concepts that you identify as most like you are combined into what is called a "type." Then the type is used to predict your behavior and attitudes (Hirsh and Kummerow 1987; Curry 1990).

2. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (Kolb 1985, 1986) consists of nine items, each offering a choice of four subitems that you are asked to rank order. Your responses are organized into two bipolar concepts: concrete experience versus reflective observation, and abstract conceptualism versus active experimentation (Curry 1990). These four preferred ways of processing information cognitively correspond to Kolb's description of learner types as accommodators, convergers, assimilators, and divergers.

3. Gregorc's ORGANON provides a Kolb-bipolar scale that is based on observations and interviews with teachers and learners (Curry 1990). His bipolar scale is composed of two continuums: the first describes the way we perceive images cognitively from concrete to abstract; the second suggests that some of us order information in a sequential or linear fashion and others in a random, nonlinear way.

4. The adult form of the Dunn, Dunn, and Price Learning Style Inventory (1989) consists of 100 true/false items investigating 23 scales. These are grouped into five areas considered likely to affect learning. These five areas include environmental, emotional, sociological, physical, and psychological elements.

Please keep in mind the following as you interpret information gained from learning style instruments. First, some theorists insist that these diagnostic inventories are essential for individualizing instruction, while others argue that they are not necessary, as all learners should be able to apply all learning modes depending on the context. Second, in addition to applying different learning modes in various situations, individuals can change their preferred learning style.

Summary

The processes of adult learning and development are interwoven and complex. Many factors interact to result in the degree of "capacity" a new or mentor teacher brings to the mentoring relationship or to his or her classroom. These educators may be at different phases, or stages, in terms of cognitive, moral, or ego development and may function best utilizing different learning styles. Knowledge of the characteristics of adult learners, their learning styles, and adult and teacher development can help educators work effectively with each other.

Reflective Practice

> To ponder is not to brood or grieve or even meditate. It is to wonder at a deep level (Fulghum 1990, 59).

Coaching new teachers to become reflective about their own teaching is a primary responsibility of the mentor teacher. As we create an image of what nurturing reflective habits in yourself and another looks like, several questions surface:

- What is reflective practice?
- How can reflection help teachers improve their teaching?
- How does a mentor coach reflective practice?
- Why is reflective practice important?

What Is Reflective Practice?

As human beings, we reflect upon our experiences daily. Gazing out of the window, we may be wondering how all of our work will get done. Driving to and from our destinations, we may mull over an earlier disagreement with someone. Sitting in front of the fire with a good book, we may think back to younger years or think ahead to possible career moves. In each moment of reflection, a very deep level of questioning is part of that calm and quiet thinking time.

For educators, reflection about personal experiences in teaching situations presents a slightly different context. Teachers may very well, and do, reflect on their teaching while sitting in front of a fire, driving home, or gazing out the window. Beyond this form of reflection, however, is an unspoken requirement and expectation that exists in teaching.

Teachers must be able to think about their teaching experiences and simultaneously adjust their teaching to best fit the need of the moment at the exact moment the need is being presented. This may mean altering a planned lesson in the name of the teachable moment. It could also mean jumping ahead two lesson plans because the group of learners involved just "got it" and "got it" much quicker than anticipated. Whatever the case, the implication here is that teachers must be prepared to alter the plan.

This ability to "think on your feet" is enhanced both through personal reflection and through reflection by conversing with another. Both forms of reflection identify what is meant by the phrase "reflective practice."

Schon has written several texts that provide insightful and thought-provoking notions about reflective practice. He uses three very different but significantly integrated phases in the cycle of reflective practice. The terms -- *knowing-in-action*, *reflection-on-action*, and *reflection-in-action* -- describe these phases. It is particularly helpful to explore what is meant by these phases by taking a look inside a hypothetical classroom.

> *Della Grace, a fifth-year teacher at Pierpont Elementary School, had already spoken to Danny three times during the last 30 minutes of what she thought was a well-planned math lesson. Once more his preoccupation demanded her attention. Slightly flushed, she left the enthusiastic faces of fourth graders, hands held high, eager to share their answers, and turned to Danny. "Danny," and with an unplanned pause she continued, "Do you have anything to add?" Almost before the question was complete, Danny blurted out, "Yes, I just figured out another way to do that one!" Minutes after the children had left for the day, Della sat at the children's conference table, wondering why she knew that imposing a disciplinary measure was not the right response to Danny's behavior.*

Knowing-in-action describes that body of knowledge that goes beyond "facts, procedures, rules, and theories" (Schon 1990, 26). It is that body of knowledge that allows us to adjust and make decisions on the spot.

> *In the classroom, Della Grace was able to make an on-the-spot decision to respond to Danny appropriately. She was able to accurately identify Danny's behavior and discover that while he was indeed preoccupied, he was clearly on task. As a mentor, Della often writes back and forth in a journal to Christine Palmer, the new teacher with whom she is working. After one such exchange of thoughts, Della began to reflect upon her own classroom experiences due to some of the things she was asking Christine to think about. She thought about Danny specifically and about how often his preoccupied behavior had given her cause to put him in time out. For Danny, time out seemed to add to rather than modify his behavior. She thought about the fact that Danny is an extrovert. She thought about how peripheral sounds and movements often claim his attention even in the midst of a one-on-one conversation. She also thought about a conversation with Danny in which he made reference to an experiment he did in science that related, in his mind, to a passage another student was reading. Danny was always talking out of turn, but many of these outbursts were more related to his self-discovery rather than his disobedience. This body of knowledge became Della Grace's knowing-in-action.*

Reflection-on-action refers to ". . . thinking back to what we have done in order to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome" (Schon 1990, 26). Quite often when we use the term *reflection*, we are referring to what has already happened. However, in Schon's three-pronged concept, it becomes vital to use the term *reflection-on-action* as separate from *reflection-in-action*.

> *Della Grace rolled a pencil between her hands as she remembered the journal entry to Christine. When she asked Christine to describe how she knew "good" noise versus "bad" noise, she remembered thinking about her own classroom, about Danny, and about what it was that led her to believe his noise was "bad" noise. She began to think more carefully about what Danny was saying, and to connections he was attempting to make. She remembered the day when Danny, very quickly, solved a complex word riddle. As she pushed her chair back from the table, she shook her head, wishing that Danny wouldn't be so aggressive in cooperative learning activities. Della wondered if she sometimes responded to his personality before she responded to his behavior.*

Reflection-in-action describes the point at which ". . . our thinking serves to reshape what we are doing while we are doing it" (Schon 1990, 26). Some individuals may choose to use the phrases "trusting your intuition," "gut reaction," or "thinking on your feet" to describe what Schon refers to as "reflection-in-action." Hunt refers to this stage of operating as the ability to "read and flex" (Hunt 1987). To teachers, this means the ability to simultaneously synthesize multiple events and behaviors in the classroom while making the appropriate adjustments.

> *Della Grace was able to accurately identify and respond to Danny's behavior through her reshaping of information. Through her own personal reflection, prompted by the reflection of "written conversation," Della was able to think about how Danny learned and from that draw some conclusions about his behavior. She was also able to distinguish the difference between responding to a child's personality versus responding to a child's behavior.*

Several individuals have clearly defined their unique perception of what is meant by the notion of reflection, reflective practice, and becoming a reflective practitioner. If we are to arrive at a common language, it becomes critical to have a clear sense of how these terms and phrases relate to one another. **Figure 1.5** on page 1-22 attempts to outline these various concepts in a relational way.

Killion and Todnem take Schon's cycle one step further in their description of *reflection-for-action*. The belief is that reflection-for-action is the ultimate goal of all forms of reflection.

> We undertake reflection, not so much to revisit the past or to become aware of the metacognitive process one is experiencing (both noble reasons in themselves), but to guide future action (the more practical purpose). Reflection, then, is a process that encompasses all time designation, past, present, and future simultaneously (Killion and Todnem 1991, 15).

Through reflection-for-action, teachers begin to broaden their understanding of what skills are necessary to best accommodate a variety of circumstances, develop a vision of what could be, and seek ongoing opportunities to talk about their teaching. Reflection-for-action invites a disposition that allows teachers to adjust the plan at the moment the need presents itself, to justify that adjustment, and to begin to wonder about the implications of their adjustment. Zeichner uses the terms -- *technical reflection*, *practical reflection*, and *critical reflection* -- to describe the three phases of such a disposition.

- **Technical Reflection** -- "the best way to get somewhere, when the somewhere is already determined." (Adjust the plan at the moment the need presents itself.) (Zeichner 1989, 15)
- **Practical Reflection** -- "teachers deliberate both about the means and about the purposes." (Justify the adjustment.) (Zeichner 1989, 15)
- **Critical Reflection** -- "happens when teachers raise issues that have to do with ethical and moral dimensions of teaching that aren't necessarily explicit within other forms of reflection. It goes beyond asking, 'What are kids learning and should they be learning that?' Instead, critical reflection raises questions related to moral dimensions of teaching, such as what kinds of things are particular groups of children learning?" (Wonder about the implications of their adjustment.) (Zeichner 1989, 16)

Figure 1.5 Theorists' Views on Reflective Practice

Schon	Killion and Todnem	Yinger	Hunt
Knowing-in-Action			
Reflection-on-Action	Reflection-on-Action	Planning ↓ Implementation ↓ Reflection	
Reflection-in-Action	Reflection-in-Action	Preparation ↓ Improvisation ↓ Contemplation	"Read and Flex"
	Reflection-for-Action		

All reflection assumes that teachers review their actions against prior knowledge, that is, their current repertoire of skills, to determine if the solution to the instructional problem was effective. They may elect to use a different approach or go beyond the instructional strategy employed, but reflection is focused on the technical correctness and effectiveness of the strategy. Teachers go beyond technical "correctness" as they incorporate critical reflection into their craft. They begin to reframe instructional problems from a technically "correct" perspective and move toward incorporating value judgments into the reflective process. Such reframing may eventually involve looking at our established beliefs (as we develop solutions to teaching dilemmas) and judging the efficacy of these beliefs in teaching.

Teachers may decide to suspend long-held beliefs or expectations (at least temporarily) in order to produce an instructionally and ethically sound, holistic teaching environment. In looking at the previous scenario, Della Grace's reflective process enabled her to suspend her notion of correct classroom behavior to honor the individuality and learning potential of one child. The additional potential of this behavior on the part of the teacher is immeasurable.

It is important to keep in mind that both technical and critical reflection are important and necessary aspects of the reflective process. With practice, they will be inculcated into the developing teacher's repertoire of skills at appropriate and timely junctures (Mezirow 1990; Sparks-Langer and Colton 1991). (*See Activity 1-9, "Reflection -- Understanding Technical and Critical Reflection," on page 1-105*).

New teachers may not be operating within a frame of reference that would invite this kind of reflection. Often first-year teachers are preoccupied with issues of personal and professional survival. The energy required to wear a variety of lenses that would allow them to see the same situation differently is directed elsewhere. Mentor teachers need to understand that while a primary goal is to coach reflective practice, the new teacher might not be ready to engage in such inquiry. The task for mentor teachers is to cultivate a predisposition that allows the new teacher to develop the ability to "reflect-for-action."

How Can Reflection Help Teachers Improve Their Teaching?

Let's go back for a moment to Danny and his teacher. Through a process of reflection, both personal thought and written conversation, Della Grace reframed the situation which allowed Danny to share his wonderful idea rather than close a door on his creative energy. Mastering the craft of teaching is an ongoing process of reflection and revision. Becoming a teacher is like embarking on a journey with several points of arrival, yet, without a final destination. Teachers are always in the process of becoming.

In her work with mentor teachers, Odell has defined the ultimate goal of the mentoring process as the point at which the new teacher becomes an "automentor." The concept is similar to that of Schon's notion of the reflective practitioner. Both Odell and Schon share a common view that when teachers become "automentors" or "reflective practitioners," they can:

- identify new ways of engaging in similar situations;
- have a broader sense of how and why they do or do not respond in the classroom; and
- recognize when it becomes necessary to seek out other persons or resources when confronted with a concern they are not sure how to address.

When adults in schools model and value reflective inquiry, students become more likely to develop and value reflective inquiry. Becoming an "automentor" or "reflective practitioner" is a primary focus of the mentoring relationship. When conversations about teaching occur between the mentor and the new teacher, all forms of reflection are nurtured and developed. Both the mentor and new teacher become more reflective about their practice. New teachers develop the qualities necessary to model reflective thinking in the classroom when they are guided through the experience of reflective inquiry. Through the process of reflection, teachers not only know that a lesson did or didn't go well, but they know why. When teachers reflect on their teaching, they become better prepared to alter the plan appropriately and when necessary.

One of the best methods for reflective inquiry for mentors and new teachers is collaborative action research. Here, teachers collaboratively identify the subject of research based upon the problems at hand. When teachers are involved in identifying a concern and conducting their own research with colleagues, a condition exists which promotes reflection-for-action. In schools, action research teams can consist of teachers, administrators, university faculty, or outside consultants. Two teachers could be the action research team. However large or small, these teams identify a concern within their unique school context and develop ways of addressing that concern collaboratively.

Let's look back once more to Pierpont Elementary School, where Della Grace, three other fourth-grade teachers (one of whom is Christine Palmer), and Dr. Hernandez, a faculty member at the nearby state university, are contemplating about engaging in a year-long collaborative action research project.

> *Della Grace took a deep breath before walking into the weekly fourth-grade team meeting. She had invited Dr. Hernandez to attend the meeting as well, in hopes that she would be able to answer the many questions her colleagues would have about the proposal that was about to be shared. After serving as a mentor for Christine Palmer for almost a full year, Della had realized the power of reflection and data gathering in improving one's practice. She had just finished a graduate course with Dr. Hernandez entitled "Collaborative Action Research." In her excitement about the course and the power of action research, Della had developed an action research proposal as part of an independent study project. Her proposal would only come to life however, if she gained the commitment of her colleagues. She felt that Christine would be eager to participate, although she still was unsure about how much time a project like this would demand versus the time Christine would have available as a second year teacher. John Rorke, a twenty-two-year veteran, might be a real stumbling block. He had taught at Pierpont his entire career, and while respected in the community, he did very little to change his approach to teaching. Jeff Chan had only been at Pierpont for one year although he was in his twelfth year of teaching. Jeff was usually willing to participate in many school activities, although he had just agreed to take on another coaching responsibility next fall.*
>
> *As the meeting began, Della introduced Dr. Hernandez and shared copies of her written proposal with her colleagues. At several of their weekly meetings, the discussion had focused on the problem-solving approach to teaching science that this fourth-grade teacher team had agreed to employ. For a variety of reasons, it was not going as well as anticipated. They had all attended a week-long seminar last summer on the topic, had read several books and articles on the subject, and had purchased several curricular materials. Nevertheless, each member of the group had experienced difficulty with this approach. Some of the major complaints included students not participating equally, how to grade, what are the real success indicators, how can you use a problem-solving approach when it comes to the need for students to have certain facts. With this as her focus, Della created a proposal where she and her colleagues, in collaboration with Dr.*

Hernandez, would engage in a year-long collaborative action research project. Together, they would identify the particular challenges they would like to focus on, develop a set of questions that they would then research, develop a research design including how they would assess and report on their progress, and through classroom observations, personal reflection, and journal responses, collect data that would respond to the questions they were researching.

As she walked out of the building that afternoon, Della smiled cautiously and reveled in the excitement she felt. John may still need more time to digest this, but at least he was willing to begin the project. She wondered what contributed to what seemed a ready willingness on the part of her colleagues to engage in this project. There was the fact that Dr. Hernandez was committing an equal amount of time and offering four university credits. Then, the principal had agreed to change the schedule to allow for alternative ways for the team to find time to work together throughout the project. He had also agreed to the proposal for matching funds; he would contribute one-half of the monies needed to hire the consultant from the previous summer's seminar to work with the team once a month. The other half would come from the team members pooling a portion of their professional development monies. She thought of her own testimonial, and how her comments had sparked an interest on the part of her colleagues. She had closed the meeting by saying, "Working with Christine this year as her mentor, I found that I reflected more on my teaching that I can ever remember doing. And, while I knew that the mentoring process could positively influence a new teacher's classroom, I never realized how much it would change and improve my own teaching. If this kind of growth can occur through a one-on-one relationship, I am convinced that the growth potential in a collaborative action team can be even more powerful."

Action research teams that are most successful work within an environment that supports the work of the team, financially and pragmatically, for example, providing time to meet. While the work of collaborative action research teams often promotes change within the classroom or larger school context, participants usually arrive at the end of the project with a new set of questions rather than a prescribed set of answers. Data that is collected, analyzed, and utilized can serve to continually inform practice. Several months or years are spent on this continual process of identification, reflection, and revision. Additionally, when collaborative action research teams include teachers and outside researchers (i.e., staff developers, university faculty, or external consultants), the likelihood of bringing theory to practice is increased.

Unlike traditional research, in collaborative action research, teachers are primary participants in and often the initiators of the research project. **Figure 1.6** on page 1-26 outlines some differences between traditional and collaborative action research. (*See Activity 1-10, "Making Research Real," on page 1-109.*)

As participants in collaborative action research, teachers come to view -- with expectation and respect -- the fluid nature of the evolving concerns of learners with whom they work. In action research, the participants do not go away unchanged. In schools, action research teams engage in the process of identifying concerns particular to their school context, spend a significant period of time exploring those elements that impact and relate to the concern they have identified, and collaboratively direct actions that promote change.

As **Figure 1.7** on page 1-27 demonstrates, in action research the teacher as learner and researcher, working collaboratively with other action research team members, is at the core of what Oja and Smulyan refer to as the "recursive nature of action research." Recursion, as a process, assumes an ongoing cycle of reflection and revision, so that at the "end" of the action

Figure 1.6 Characteristics of Collaborative Action and Traditional Research

COLLABORATIVE ACTION RESEARCH	TRADITIONAL RESEARCH
Teacher is researcher.	Researcher is outside expert.
Research is recursive model.	Research is linear model.
Subject is identified through observations of teachers.	Subject of observation is predetermined by outside researcher.
Results encourage a variety of ways of addressing a concern.	Results tend to be prescriptive.
Results affect specific classrooms and teachers.	Results do not always affect specific classrooms and teachers.

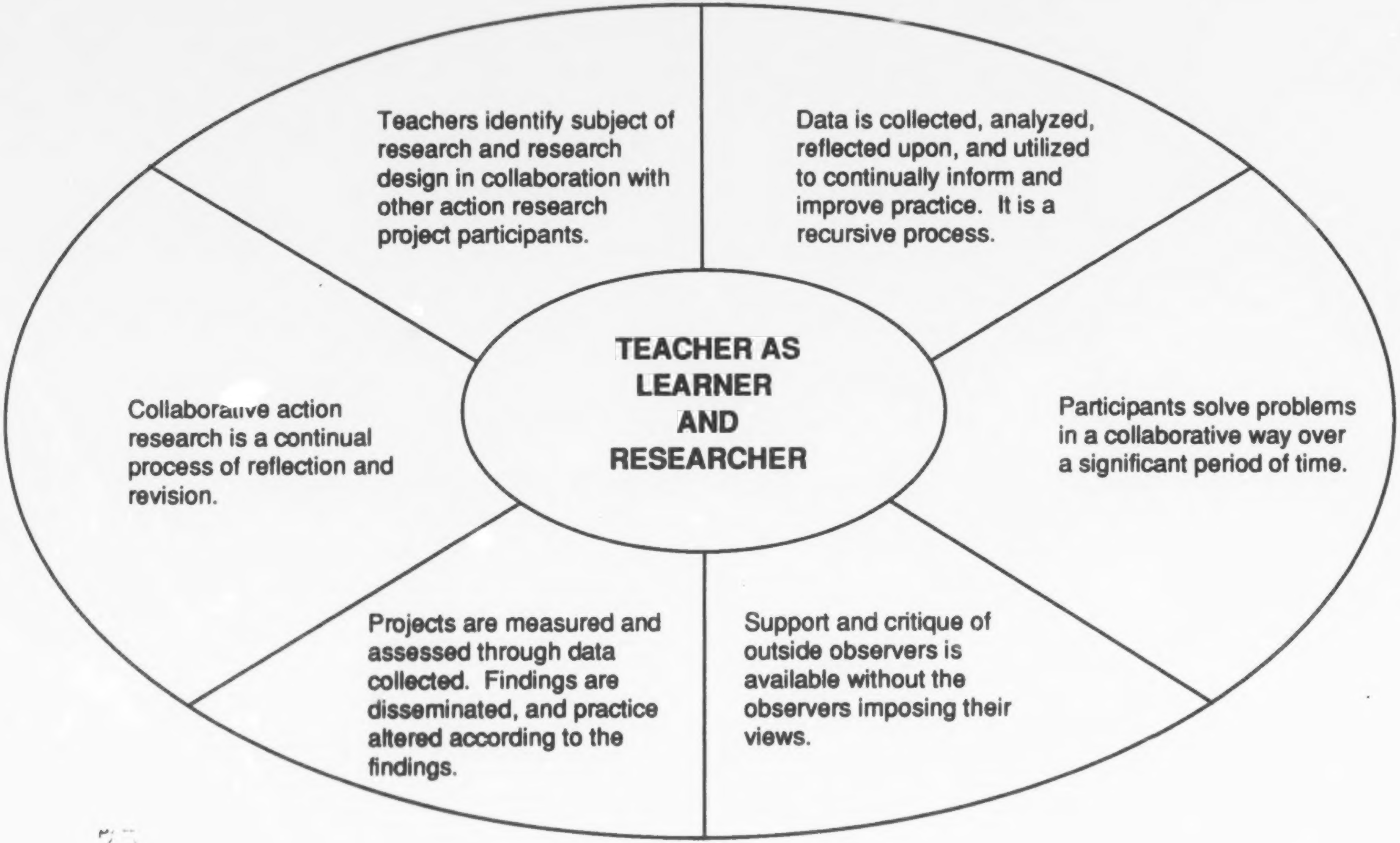
research project, teams arrive at closure with alternatives for responding to previously identified challenges, as well as several new questions. Participation in action research enhances a disposition that promotes inquiry for participants and, as stated earlier, when adults in schools model and value reflective inquiry, students become more likely to develop and value reflective inquiry. Because of their intense involvement, action research team members can experience growth in levels of conceptual complexity, ego, cognitive, and moral development; demonstrate a higher tolerance for ambiguity; become more open to alternative ways of solving problems; and become more willing to assume new roles in their school context (Oja and Smulyan 1989). Due to a significant period of involvement and emphasis on the teacher as researcher, participants in action research further develop their ability to solve problems in a collaborative way through a systematic reflection on their own practice.

How Does a Mentor Coach Reflective Practice?

The word *coach* implies a sense of guiding -- facilitating the process individuals must go through before they can make sense of an experience. Mentor coaches not only provide new teachers with opportunities for inquiry, but also model inquiry by sharing questions that impact on how they, themselves, make sense of their own teaching. While modeling inquiry is particularly important in the beginning stages of the mentoring relationship, it remains an essential thread throughout the relationship.

A key premise to the concept of coaching is that through experience and a guided discussion about that experience, you become better prepared for the unplanned events that impact your experience. As we noted in the preceding scenario, Della Grace was prepared to adjust her plan on the spot. While coaching does involve assisting the development of certain skills, it also involves experiencing how to utilize those skills when unforeseen variables impact your experience. Coaches of athletic teams often depend upon the instant replay or the videotape of the game in order to develop a dialogue with their athletes. Through this dialogue, those athletes reflect-on-action; they think about what they did, why they chose to do what they did, what they might do differently next time, and why. Through this kind of review of experience, individuals become more prepared to reflect-in-action (adjust the plan) next time.

Figure 1.7 Collaborative Action Research: The Cycle of Reflection-for-Action



Teachers identify subject of research and research design in collaboration with other action research project participants.

Data is collected, analyzed, reflected upon, and utilized to continually inform and improve practice. It is a recursive process.

Participants solve problems in a collaborative way over a significant period of time.

Support and critique of outside observers is available without the observers imposing their views.

Projects are measured and assessed through data collected. Findings are disseminated, and practice altered according to the findings.

Collaborative action research is a continual process of reflection and revision.

Given time constraints within our daily routines and schedules, the videotape or "instant replay" of a new teacher's lesson is not always possible or, in some cases, an available option. While it is always preferable to allow new teachers to have this opportunity at some point during the mentoring relationship, it is usually the kind of reflective experience that happens least often. If this is true, then how do mentors coach reflective practice? Primarily, it is through a series of thoughtful questions based upon a classroom observation, a previous conversation, or the new teacher's crisis at hand that becomes the catalyst for guiding new teachers in reconstructing each frame of their experiences in such a way that they are able to reflect-on-action. It is through reflection-on-action that reflection-in-action becomes a reality for teachers. The more opportunities teachers have to engage in dialogue about what they did during that last lesson, the more they will begin to identify other ways of handling similar teaching situations. **Figure 1.8** below suggests examples of some questions that would be useful for the mentor teacher who is assisting the new teacher in developing his or her own "instant replay."

Figure 1.8 Questions That Prompt Reflection

Can you talk more about that?
Why do you think that happens?
What evidence do you have about that?
What does this remind you of?
Do you see a connection between this and anything else you have done before?
How else could you approach that?
What do you want to happen?
How could you do that?

Source: Canning, Christine. (1991). "What Teachers Say about Reflection," Educational Leadership, 48, 6:19. Adapted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Copyright (1991) by ASCD. All rights reserved.

It is true that often, by looking in classrooms, observers can identify certain situations in which teachers were "thinking on their feet," as they appeared to shift their direction midway through a lesson. Even without formal observation, it is possible to identify reflective qualities in teachers by providing opportunities for them to talk about the reflective thinking that, without conversation, becomes lost in their actions. As mentor teachers, we need to ask a new teacher:

- How did you arrive at a particular solution?
- Why did you decide to do it that way?
- If you were to teach the same lesson again, what would you do the same or differently and why?
- What were you thinking about or observing when a certain situation occurred during a lesson?
- Did you notice anything in particular about what certain students were doing while you were engaged in teaching?

Above all, mentors and new teachers need to share a common language about what is meant by reflective practice. They must engage in these conversations and do so often.

Finding the time to sit and talk about what is happening on a day-to-day basis often becomes a source of frustration for both new and mentor teachers. Informal chats in the hallway, at lunch, or after school are helpful, but all too often even those brief moments are stolen by committee and faculty meetings, a mad dash to a waiting line at the copy machine, or the responsibilities of after-school jobs and family commitments. When time is so limited, how can opportunities that nurture reflection become available?

Many mentor teachers and new teachers alike have found the process of journal writing an invaluable tool in "calling up" what they were thinking and feeling when a certain event transpired. Quite often this exchange of thought via journal invites further dialogue. The articulation of reflective thinking through journal entries can enhance the ongoing development of the conversation of practice. Through a blend of both written and verbal expression, teachers can develop a clearer understanding of what they are experiencing in the classroom and begin to expand a repertoire of skills for handling similar teaching situations in a variety of ways (*see Activity 1-11, "Keeping a Journal for Collegial Dialogue," on page 1-113*).

A CAUTION HERE: Mentors and new teachers could benefit greatly from engaging in journal dialogue. Yet, there remains a dangerous potential to overwhelm both mentors and new teachers alike if we assume that all teachers embrace the opportunity to communicate in written form. If journals are to be used, it is essential to develop a nonthreatening definition of what a journal is as well as what a journal dialogue can accomplish. Journals can be as simple as a thought written in a lesson plan book. The entry can be as brief or lengthy as needed to get a thought or question down on paper. An entry could be a reaction by a teacher to something he or she did in the classroom or a response to something someone else wrote.

Before a journal format can be utilized, a level of trust needs to be established between the new teacher and the mentor. Ground rules need to be discussed. Two questions -- "Who gets to read this?" and "What do you do with this information?" -- need to be addressed from the outset, as the answers may have a direct relationship to what is shared in that journal. Finally, the ever-present issue of time is one that is often used as a reason not to do this "journal writing stuff." Once again, an entry may be a brief question or comment that may have escaped further dialogue had it not been written down.

In ideal situations, mentors and new teachers are teaching in the same building. However, schools often present less than ideal situations. For those mentor/new teacher teams who find themselves teaching in different buildings, the use of the dual-entry journal can help to bridge that geographical gap.

Let's take a final look at Della Grace and Christine Palmer, the new teacher with whom she is working. The following are excerpts from the journal they kept throughout the school year:

Christine: *I really can't believe that I have my own classroom, my own class. I know that I have a lot to offer my students. It's only been two weeks since the beginning of school; yet, I feel so comfortable with the kids. The most difficult part for me is how long it takes me to plan, find materials, and decide what I am going to do for the next week. It's really hard for me to leave school before five o'clock each afternoon. I don't mind, though. I just love what I'm doing.*

Della: *Your enthusiasm is obvious, Christine. It makes it so exciting for me to have the chance to work with you this year. When I've walked through your classroom, your rapport with the children is obvious. I know what you mean about how long it takes to plan, and I know that you are excited about what you are doing. Still . . . staying until five each night is a lot. I've got some materials in my room that might be of some help to you. If we sit down together after school, I think that I can help you organize your plans so that you aren't here so late each afternoon.*

Christine: *Thanks for the help. You're right. If I look at planning longer units or blocks, I can prepare more materials ahead of time. I appreciate the time; thanks again.*

Later in the semester . . . .

Christine: *Sometimes I wonder if I really am cut out for teaching. I mean, I still love the kids, but I never seem to get everything done. Even when I think I am prepared for class, it seems like I always forget something. I'm also finding that I'm not able to do much of anything with Teresa. She has a hard time with reading. She's okay in cooperative activities when other students are helping her, but when she is asked to complete a task on her own . . . no way. When I go over to spend time with her, it always takes longer than I want it to take. After a few minutes with Teresa, some of the other students are off-the-wall. I feel like I am able to teach to the whole group fairly well, but when I'm working with one student, like Teresa, I lose control of the class.*

Della: *I remember Teresa from when I visited your classroom. You were conferencing with your students. You had to take some time to talk with Teresa that day. When you did, I saw that several of the students began conferencing with one another about their stories. The noise level did increase. Was this what you meant when you referred to some of the other students being off-the-wall? I also saw Brian and David in the science corner at that time. Were they involved in conferencing or were they doing their own thing? I'm wondering what made you feel that you were not in control of the class? Was it the noise that was uncomfortable? Do you think that there is a difference in good noise versus bad noise?*

Christine: *Thank you for inviting me into your class. It is amazing how many things are going on at the same time. The students just seem to know what to do. When you were talking about the math problem, I noticed that Danny was not even paying attention. That's exactly the kind of thing that makes me feel out of control. I know that I would have stopped class and dealt with his behavior at the first sign of his not paying attention. When you didn't, I was surprised. But what really surprised me was the fact that he was paying attention. Didn't you think his answer was great? But how did you know that?*

A week later . . . .

Della: *What you wrote last week made me realize that I have been thinking about my own teaching a lot more because of our conversations and our writing. It's funny that you should mention the situation with Danny. I have had a lot of difficulty in dealing with him in class. His apparent lack of attention happens often. I've been very frustrated by that and his aggressive nature. When you asked how I knew what to*

> *say to Danny, I'm not so sure that I would have been able to tell you if you had asked me at that very moment. I did think about that situation after class that day. I guess I've given more thought to how he learns and taken a closer look at what his behavior is really all about. Even after teaching for five years, I found that I can still respond to a child's personality before I respond to the behavior. That was part of my problem with Danny. Danny still needs to work on his social skills, i.e., interrupting, speaking out, but I started to think about him differently and that has been very helpful for me. Isn't that what teaching is all about, the ability to address the unique needs of each student we have?*

These examples of journal excerpts begin to identify how the use of the written word can help to coach reflective practice. Journals are one of several ways that the mentor can coach reflective practice. **Figure 1.9** below outlines further suggestions.

Figure 1.9 Ways to Encourage Reflective Practice

- Share conversation over coffee before school, after school, or during lunch.
- Stop for an informal visit: a quick walk through the classroom to look at a particular concern of the new teacher.
- Before you leave the new teacher's classroom, jot down a few comments and questions and leave them with the teacher.
- Team teach a lesson.
- Invite the new teacher to observe you or another classroom teacher.
- Encourage new teachers to videotape themselves.
- Observe the new teacher following a pre-observation conference.
- Provide objective feedback following observation of a post conference.
- Suggest professional literature for the new teacher to read, and talk about it.

Why Is Reflective Practice Important?

> The developmental growth of adults and children in the schools is vitally linked (Levine 1989, 114).

Change is inevitable. The ongoing process of reflection and revision is what allows change to occur. When teachers think and talk about their teaching, they are more likely to develop a greater ability to respond to the ever-increasing and complex demands that are brought about by change. When teachers are encouraged to identify a challenge within their classroom, develop strategies to meet that challenge, and practice those strategies, they become better prepared. This process of reflection-for-action is the goal of the mentoring relationship. When Killion and Todnem refer to this form of reflection, they are taking the notion of being able to "read and flex" one step further. They are talking about teachers who are developing the ability to anticipate potential ways of operating given different combinations of possible occurrences within their classrooms. When teachers reflect-for-action, they shift from the concept of expecting the predictable to that of predicting the unexpected. Yinger (1990) describes this shift as a movement from planning to preparation.

> **In planning . . . the goal is to constrain the unpredictable, the random, and the wild. . . . On the other hand, preparation acknowledges our limited ability to predict and the constructive nature of life. Preparation expects diversity, surprise, the random, and the wild. . . . In a sense, preparation enlarges the future (Yinger 1990, 88).**

Growth is the outcome of reflective practice. Teachers who deliberately learn, develop, and improve are more likely to have students who do the same. The power of modeling must not be underestimated. The enthusiasm and excitement of teachers who are learning and growing affects their students in similar ways.

Summary

In closing, there are some key thoughts about reflective practice that are important to ponder as you work with a new teacher. Among these are:

- A common language is critical before two or more teachers can engage in a conversation about reflective practice.
- When teachers develop the ability to "read and flex," they are able to adjust their teaching to best fit the need of the moment, at the exact moment the need is being presented.
- A key premise behind the concept of coaching is that, through experience and a guided discussion about that experience, one becomes more likely to be prepared for the unplanned events that occur in classrooms.
- When adults in schools model reflective inquiry, their students become more likely to develop and value reflective inquiry.
- The process of becoming a reflective practitioner is an ongoing journey.
- It is through reflection-on-action that reflection-in-action becomes a reality for teachers.
- Collaborative action research is one of the best forms of ongoing reflective inquiry in which mentors and new teachers can engage.
- Through the mentoring process, both the mentor and the new teacher become more reflective about their practice.

The Change Process

Someone once correctly identified change as the only constant in our lives. Quickly considering how different our lives are now from a year ago illustrates the point. Change happens whether we want it to or not. As Fullan reminds us, "Change is everywhere; progress is not" (Fullan 1991, 345). Some changes result in positive outcomes; others do not. Some changes are unplanned; others are results of planned efforts. Most of our discussion here will be about planned change in educational settings, particularly around mentoring activities. However, the knowledge that some of what occurs during a planned change may not be anticipated at all can help you appreciate the complex, dilemma-ridden, hard-to-predict nature of change. Your effective response to the ubiquitous phenomenon of change depends upon learning as much as you can about it. "Change is more likely to be an ally than an adversary if it is confronted. We can learn to reject unwanted

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change more effectively while at the same time becoming more effective at accomplishing desired improvements" (Fullan 1991, 345).

Becoming a mentor to a new teacher means assuming a new role, establishing new relationships, and accepting new responsibilities. As welcome as this may be, it is a change. Preparing for, moving through, and finally adopting this change can be an anxiety-ridden, destabilizing process for anyone involved. We believe that knowledge of change and educational innovation can put that anxiety into a perspective that can significantly reduce its possible negative effects. With a useful concept of the change process, mentors can assume this new role more readily. Mentors can also better understand and facilitate the induction of new teachers into the profession. At still another level, mentors who understand the change process can become key leaders in educational change and professional development in their sites.

To illustrate this point, this section will address four questions that move the discussion from the theoretical to the practical:

- What do theorists say about the change process?
- How can change theory be applied to individuals and organizations in educational settings?
- Why do mentors need to know about the change process?
- What are the critical change agent skills that mentors need?

What Do Theorists Say about the Change Process?

The risk of acknowledging some change theorists is neglecting to mention others. Nevertheless, an overview of the concept can show the similarities of thought and lead us toward a meaningful definition. Classical change theory has its origins in the work of Lewin (1958). He identified three stages in the process of change: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Others have elaborated upon these stages or have built their own conceptual models, but these three stages seem to be a common view (see **Figure 1.10** on page 1-34).

The first stage is awareness (Lewin's unfreezing) -- realizing the need for a change. Assessing a need means understanding the problem, considering the prospects for the change, and scanning for any options or resources that could reduce the uneasiness that often accompanies the process. All these elements are part of the preparation for change. The psychological complexities of persons becoming aware of the need for change deserves more attention than this space permits. Three possible mechanisms are worth mentioning: when expectations have not been met; when discomfort becomes too great; or when a former obstacle to change has been removed (Welch 1979). This initial stage usually involves great levels of anxiety and uncertainty, as it means letting go of the familiar -- an ending.

The second stage, moving, is the actual change. This stage means choosing a solution and trying it out. There is constant testing and reevaluation of possible strategies. Interaction with the forces in the environment is ongoing. The context may limit the viable solutions. Scanning for resources in terms of time, money, support, and assistance will affect the ultimate selection of the change goal. Some theorists describe this stage as an emotionally neutral or ambivalent transition. Moving requires time to reflect on progress.

Figure 1.10 Stages of Change

Stage	I	II	III
Lewin (1958)	unfreezing	moving	refreezing
VanGennep (1960)	separation	transition	incorporation
Rogers (1962)	awareness interest	evaluation trial	adoption
Havelock (1973)	- building a relationship - diagnosing the problem - acquiring relevant resources	- choosing the solution - gaining acceptance	- stabilizing - self-renewing
Lippitt (1973)	- diagnosing the problem - assessing the motivation and capacity to change - assessing change agent's motivation and resources	- selecting progressive change objectives - choosing the appropriate role for the change agent	- maintaining the change - terminating the helping relationship
Bridges (1980)	endings - immobilization - denial - depression, anger	neutral zone - letting go - testing - searching for meaning	beginnings - internalization - new beginnings
Miles (1983)	initiation - linked to high-profile need - clear model of implementation - one or more strong advocates - active initiation	implementation - coordination - shared control - pressure and support - ongoing technical assistance	institutionalization - embedding - links to other areas - wide-spreading - removal of competing priority - continuing assistance

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The third stage in the change process is refreezing -- a new level of stabilization. In this stage, the change becomes adopted, internalized, and established as a new way of operating. Incorporating a change means maintaining it by embedding it into the regular fabric of an individual or an organization. This period can be psychologically uplifting, as a goal has been accomplished -- a new level of functioning has been realized. It is a new beginning (*see Activity 1-12, "Change Begins with Each of Us," on page 1-117*).

How Can Change Theory Be Applied to Individuals and Organizations in Educational Settings?

Many educational researchers have examined the change process at personal and organizational levels. Perhaps a blend of some of their understandings of this phenomenon will help us approach this question. These assumptions about change emerge primarily from the work of Hord et al., Fullan, and Loucks-Horsley and Stiegelbauer.

Change is a process, not an event. Change takes time.

For those who do not understand and appreciate the complexities of change, a policy mandate or the mere mention of a new innovation can signal that a change has occurred. In reality, the work of the classical change theorists holds true. There are stages in the change process. It takes time to get ready for the change (initiation), to put the idea into practice (implementation), and to integrate the new practice into the structure of the system and maintain that practice (institutionalization). In a school, three to five years is not an unreasonable time span for a significant change to take place (Loucks and Zacchei 1983).

Change is often difficult and unpleasant.

While change is natural in that it happens all around us and even to us every day (Krupp 1989), "change is not a natural act -- maintaining the status quo is" (Loucks-Horsley 1991). Change, therefore, is bound to meet resistance at the personal level, and because organizations are composed of individuals with different realities, conflict will occur. We must "assume that conflict and disagreement are not only inevitable but fundamental to successful change" (Fullan 1982, 91). The expectation that change can be discouraging, frustrating, and slow is more realistic. This assumption does not prevent initiators from moving, but it does limit expecting an unduly fast level of implementation, especially where resistance is grounded in deeply held beliefs.

Change is accomplished by individuals, before organizations.

As many before us have noted, we can only change ourselves. Change from outside affects people and how they are involved in the change process is most important. Change does not occur in an organization until a critical mass of individuals have absorbed the improvement as their own. Breakthroughs can occur when enough people understand why a new way works better. Integrating personal change with organizational change involves leaders who are committed enough to an innovation to set the right conditions for successful adoption. It also involves interaction among colleagues so that the transformative idea can spread through dialogue and persuasion. Either change strategy can work and each has its own advantages. The most successful change strategy is all at once top-down and bottom-up (Loucks-Horsley 1989; Fullan 1982; Hord et al. 1987). What is important is that the necessary support is given to both individuals and the organization throughout the change process.

Change is a highly personal experience.

Individuals are different and perceive and respond to the proposed change in idiosyncratic ways. The people responsible for the change must realize that the personal dimension of change is more critical than the technological dimension (Loucks-Horsley and Steigelbauer 1991). How people feel about the change initiative, especially at the beginning, is of utmost importance. Time and techniques must be provided for people to express their concerns. When personal concerns are acknowledged, that information can be used to support individuals in different ways. "Paying attention to each individual's progress can enhance the improvement process" (Hord et al. 1987).

Change involves developmental growth.

Adapting to change is a learning process. "Individuals involved in change go through stages in their perceptions and feelings about an innovation, as well as in their skill and sophistication in using the innovation" (Loucks-Horsley and Steigelbauer 1991, 18). Practice and feedback on the new skills are necessary. It is noted that it is easier to change behavior than it is to change beliefs (Krupp 1989; Guskey 1986). To build on this, Guskey (1986) reminds us that it is crucial to provide support and follow-up to implementors of an innovation in order to point out to them the beneficial results of their changed practice. If a change in practice produces visible positive outcomes, then implementors are likely to change their beliefs. Loucks-Horsley (1991) also notes that people don't have to buy into change before they enter into it. She recommends encouraging them to "suspend disbelief." Even those who would like to change usually need some pressure to do so (Fullan 1982). Findings from the Rand Change Agent Study also show that "belief or commitment can follow mandated or coerced involvement at both the individual and the system level" (McLaughlin 1990, 13).

Change is best understood in operational terms.

Individuals need to know how their lives will change as they adopt a change, and how much time it will take; what changes in knowledge, skill, and disposition will be required; and how much commitment will be expected. In educational practice, Loucks and Zacchei (1983) have articulated three characteristics of any innovation that make it more acceptable: it should be "well-defined" so that implementors are clear about what it looks like in practice; it should be "classroom-friendly" so that it can readily fit into practice; and it should be "effective" in that there is some evidence that the new practice works. By presenting a change in this form, facilitators can communicate more easily about the operational meaning of the change and thus reduce the level of anxiety and resistance.

The focus of facilitation should be on individuals, innovations, and the context -- a systematic approach.

Changing schools is an activity that demands a plan to consider the improvement being introduced, those who are expected to implement the improvement, and the organizational setting in which the initiative is to take place. Good change facilitators know that even with a plan, change is hard to predict. A shift in one part of the system can mean unforeseen changes in another part. They must stay keenly aware of the progress of individuals, consider the flexibility of the innovation, monitor the health of the total organization, and design interventions which respond to all three. Alterations along the way -- changes in the original change -- are part of the process. Fullan reminds us that "the crux of change is how individuals come to grips with its reality" (Fullan 1982, 24). Change is a shift in one's meaning. Likewise, innovation cannot be assimilated in an organization unless that new meaning is shared. Ultimately, change happens because people change.

One tool that addresses the human quality of change and that takes the above assumptions into account is the Stages of Concern sequence from the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall and Loucks 1978). "Everyone approaching a change, implementing an innovation, or developing skill in using an innovation will have certain perceptions, feelings, motivations, and frustrations about the innovation and the change process" (Loucks-Horsley and Steigelbauer 1991, 4). By identifying individuals' concerns about the change process, facilitators can plot their rate of progress in implementing change and craft appropriate support and challenge to enhance their development. Consider the model presented in **Figure 1.11** on page 1-38 (*see Activity 1-13, "Open-Ended Questions," on page 1-121, and Activity 1-14, "Stages of Concern about Mentoring," on page 1-123*).

As you review **Figure 1.11**, move through the stages of concern from the perspective of a new mentor. Stages 1 and 2 reflect concerns about self and what it means personally to accept a new role. Stage 3 shows a concern about the task and what one needs to do to mentor. Stages 4, 5, and 6 express impact concerns -- what difference will it make to work as a mentor. From another point of view, consider the stages of concern of new teachers accepting their first classroom position. The concerns about an innovation, mentoring, teaching, or an instructional program follow a predictable progression that can help change agents be more effective.

Why Do Mentors Need to Know about the Change Process?

We hope it is evident by now that everyone, in all walks of life, can benefit from learning about the change process. Mentors especially have a number of reasons to understand the change process at several different levels.

First, mentors are assuming a new role. They need to be aware of the process that they are undergoing as they learn the role. Evaluating their own concerns and anticipating the next steps will help their development. They can also develop a critical eye through which to view the quality of the training they receive and to offer feedback to improve it. By understanding the assumptions about change offered here, mentors can seek out support and look for opportunities to exchange their perceptions with other mentors.

Second, mentors are introducing new teachers to a role with which they are relatively unfamiliar -- teaching. As change agents, mentors need to be aware of the developmental stages of their protégés. Being sensitive to their concerns and offering appropriate supports and challenges are critical tasks. By understanding the differences between new teachers' needs and their own needs, mentors can develop the patience necessary to ensure the continued maturation of new teachers.

Third, both the mentor and the new teacher can use their knowledge of the change process as they work with their students. We expect changes in our students as we introduce new programs into classrooms. The application of what we know about change to these initiatives will help our students become better learners.

Fourth, mentoring itself is a change that is being introduced to a school setting and to the profession as a whole. Mentors and others who understand the change process will have to present this innovation to the greater educational community and see that it is implemented and institutionalized. Mentors, equipped with some fundamental knowledge of how change occurs, will be more effective in ensuring the success of mentoring programs.

Figure 1.11 Stages of Concern about the Innovation

6	REFOCUSING:	The focus is on exploration of more universal benefits from the innovation, including the possibility of major changes or replacement with a more powerful alternative. Individual has definite ideas about alternatives to the proposed or existing form of the innovation.
5	COLLABORATION:	The focus is on coordination and cooperation with others regarding use of the innovation.
4	CONSEQUENCE:	Attention focuses on the impact of the innovation on the student in his or her immediate sphere of influence. The focus is on relevance of the innovation for students, evaluating student outcomes, including performance and competencies, and changes needed to increase student outcomes.
3	MANAGEMENT:	Attention is focused on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Issues related to efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands are of utmost importance.
2	PERSONAL:	Individual is uncertain about the demands of the innovation, his or her inadequacy to meet those demands, and his or her role with the innovation. This includes analysis of his or her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decision making, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structure or personal commitment. Financial or status implications of the program for self and colleagues may also be reflected.
1	INFORMATIONAL:	A general awareness of the innovation and interest in learning more detail about it is indicated. The person seems to be at ease with himself or herself in relation to the innovation. She or he is selflessly interested in substantive aspects of the innovation in a selfless manner such as general characteristics, effects, and requirements for use.
0	AWARENESS:	Little concern about or involvement with the innovation is indicated.

Source: Adapted with permission of Teachers College Record from "Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development" by Gene E. Hall and Susan Loucks. (c) 1978.

Mentoring is a model for staff development. It offers teachers the opportunity to actualize lifelong learning. If effectively administered, mentoring programs encourage reflective practice, inquiry, development of technical skills, and collaboration. These four elements are keys to improvement at the classroom and the school levels (Fullan 1990). Although the quality of the mentoring relationship will ultimately determine its potential impact on the individuals and the setting, mentoring is a relatively new phenomenon in teacher induction. It will take more encouragement of teacher learning and more technical skills to significantly change the culture of schools. However, a sound mentoring program can be a significant, positive step toward educational transformation in the 1990s.

What Are the Critical Skills Mentors Need as Change Agents?

As mentors have the potential of leading educational change in schools, it is important to address the skills they will need. The application of those skills will be discussed elsewhere in this guide, but the list by Saxl, Miles, and Lieberman that appears in **Figure 1.12** (on pages 1-40 through 1-41) is a very comprehensive one. It outlines all the abilities that excellent school improvement facilitators should have. "A skilled corps of local facilitators can mean the difference between frustration and failure, with one change program after another, and sustained success" (Saxl, Miles, and Lieberman 1989, 1-4).

Some skills are more pertinent to the mentoring role than others. Interpersonal ease, general knowledge, trust/rapport building, support, collaboration, confidence building, resourcefulness, and demonstration (numbers 1, 4, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, and 18 in **Figure 1.12**) seem to be the skills mentors need in relationships with new teachers. The remaining skills could be developed as mentors expand their repertoire and range of activities. *Activity 1-15, "Mentors as Change Agents," on page 1-129* lets new mentors discuss the skills that they believe are essential to the role. *Activity 1-16, "Becoming a Mentor: A Personal Needs Assessment and Growth Plan," on page 1-133* encourages mentors to assess their collection of important knowledge, skills, and dispositions in order to prepare a plan for professional growth.

Summary

Learning to manage educational change in more effective ways than in the past requires a deeper understanding of change theory. "Positive change is highly exciting and exhilarating, as it generates new learning, new commitments, new accomplishments, and greater meaning, but anxiety, uncertainty, exhaustion, and loss of confidence also mark the way, especially at the early stages" (Fullan 1991, 345). Understanding this allows a new mindset to develop, both individually and organizationally. Change can be confronted and managed. The key to this is developing effective change agent skills. Mentors, as facilitators of change in themselves, new teachers, and others, need to continually reassess these skills and their knowledge about and attitude toward educational change.

Diversity

One of the greatest challenges in education today is the need to create effective learning environments for all students. Students vary by age, gender, ability, socioeconomic background, learning styles, values, needs, race, national origin, language, culture, religious preferences, and political or sexual orientation. Schools that have traditionally been relatively homogeneous are currently experiencing an increase in the diversity of their communities. By the year 2000, one-third of the population in the United States will be minority, and youth will be 40 percent

Figure 1.12 Key Skills for Educational Assistance Personnel

Description	*Examples*
1. **Interpersonal Ease**: Relating to and directing others.	Very open person; nice manner, has always been able to deal with staff; knows when to stroke, when to hold back, when to assert; knows "which buttons to push"; gives individuals time to vent feelings; lets them know her interest in them; can talk to anyone.
2. **Group Functioning**: Understanding group dynamics, able to facilitate team work.	Has ability to get a group moving; started with nothing and then made us come together as a unified body; good group facilitator, lets discussion flow.
3. **Training/Doing Workshops**: Directing instruction, teaching adults in systematic way.	Gave workshops on how to develop plans; taught us consensus method with five-finger game; prepares a great deal and enjoys it; has the right chemistry and can impact knowledge at the peer level.
4. **General Knowledge** (Master Teacher): Wide educational experience, able to impart skills to others.	Excellent teaching skills; taught all the grades, grade leader work, resource teacher, has done staff development with teachers; was always assisting, supporting, being resource person to teachers; a real master teacher, much teacher training work.
5. **Educational Content**: Knowledge of school subject matter.	Demonstrating expertise in a subject area; showed parents the value of play and trips in kindergarten; knows a great deal about teaching; what she doesn't know she finds out.
6. **Administrative/Organizational**: Defining and structuring work, activities, time.	Highly organized, has everything prepared in advance; could take an idea and turn it into a program; good at prioritizing, scheduling; knows how to set things up.
7. **Initiative–Taking**: Starting or pushing activities, moving directly toward action.	Assertive, clear sense of what he wanted to do; ability to poke and prod where needed to get things done; had to assert myself so he didn't step in.
8. **Trust/Rapport–Building**: Developing a sense of safety, openness, reduced threat on part of clients: good relationship building.	In two weeks, he had gained confidence of staff; had to become one of the gang, eat lunch with them; a skilled seducer (knows how to get people to ask for help): "I have not repeated what they said so trust was built"; did not threaten staff; was so open and understanding that I stopped feeling uneasy.
9. **Support**: Providing nurturing relationship; positive, affective relationship.	Able to accept harsh things teachers say, "It's okay, everyone has these feelings"; a certain compassion for others; always patient, never critical, very enthusiastic.
10. **Confrontation**: Direct expression of negative information without generating a negative effect.	Can challenge in a positive way; will lay it on the line about what works and what won't; is talkative and factual; can point out things and get away with being blunt; able to tell people they were wrong, and they accept it.

Source: Reprinted with permission of the authors from Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual by Ellen R. Saxl with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. (c) 1989.

Figure 1.12 Key Skills for Educational Assistance Personnel (continued)

Description	*Examples*
11. **Conflict Mediation**: Resolving or improving situations in which multiple incompatible interests are in play.	Effected a compromise between upper- and lower-grade teachers on use of a checklist; spoke to the chair about his autocratic behavior, and things have been considerably better; able to mediate and get the principal to soften her attitude; can handle people who are terribly angry, unreasonable; keeps cool.
12. **Collaboration**: Creating relationships in which influence is mutually shared.	Deals on same level we do, puts in his ideas; leads and directs us, but as peers; doesn't judge us or put us down; has ideas of his own, but flexible enough to maintain the teachers' way of doing things, too.
13. **Confidence-Building**: Strengthening client's sense of efficacy, belief in self.	She makes all feel confident and competent; doesn't patronize: "You can do it"; has a way of drawing out teacher's ideas; injects a great deal, but you feel powerful; makes people feel great about themselves; like a shot of adrenaline boosting your mind, ego, talents, and professional expertise.
14. **Diagnosing Individuals**: Forming a valid picture of needs/problems of an individual teacher or administrator as a basis for action.	Realizing that when a teacher says she has the worst class, she means "I need help"; has an ability to focus in on problems; picks up the real message; sensitive, looks at teacher priorities first; knows when an offhand joke is a signal for help.
15. **Diagnosing Organizations**: Forming a valid picture of the needs/problems of the school organization as a basis for action.	Analyzes situation, recognizes problems, jumps from where you are to where you want to go; anticipates problems schools face when they enter the program; helped us see where we should be going; helped them look at the data in the assessment package.
16. **Managing/Controlling**: Orchestrating the improvement process; coordinating activities, time, and people: direct influence on others.	Prepared materials and coordinated our contact with administration and district; is a task master and keeps the process going; makes people do things rather than doing them himself.
17. **Resource-Bringing**: Locating and providing information, materials, practices, equipment useful to clients.	He uses his network to get us supplies; brings ideas that he has seen work elsewhere; has the newest research methods, articles, and ideas, and waters them down for our needs.
18. **Demonstration**: Modeling new behavior in classrooms or meetings.	Willing to go into classrooms and take risks; modeling; showed the chair by his own behavior how to be more open.

minority (Hodgkinson 1987). In fact, racial minorities already constitute the majority in 23 of the 25 largest school districts in the nation (Gay 1989). The need to prepare educators to provide meaningful educational opportunities to this changing population is critical, as schools prepare students with the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to function effectively in the larger society.

Research indicates that while the student population is diversifying, the racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic composition of teachers and student teachers has narrowed. The majority of teachers entering the workforce today are white, come from middle-class backgrounds, and are trained to work effectively with one socioeconomic group -- the middle class and one culture -- the dominant culture (Callahan and Clark 1983; Lindsey 1985).

Since teachers' satisfaction and their sense of efficacy has been connected to student outcomes (Beane and Lipka 1984), new teachers relate their sense of accomplishment to student learning. Thus, when students fall short of reaching learning goals, new teachers may have a pervading sense of their own incompetency. Without sensitivity to, knowledge of, or experience with this broader diversity of society, they may also inaccurately assess their students' abilities. When this mismatch or dissonance occurs, mentors can assist new teachers to enhance their knowledge and understanding of different cultures, socioeconomic backgrounds, or languages and work with them to provide appropriate learning opportunities for each student.

In this section, we address the following questions:

- How can mentors assist new teachers to teach students in classrooms with increasing diversity?
- How can mentors assist a new teacher from a different background?

How Can Mentors Assist New Teachers to Teach Students in Classrooms with Increasing Diversity?

A word to the mentor. . . .

Do you remember your first year of teaching? Do you remember how each new task, unit, or lesson was preceded by anxiety, anticipation, and the excitement of trying out something new in your classroom? That first year was probably both the best and the worst year of your professional life.

Every year new teachers enter the profession with as many hopes and dreams as you did. Because of changing demographics, many of them will be facing a very different group of children from those you taught earlier in your career or are teaching now. What makes some of these students different might be the language they speak or the fact that they come from a different socioeconomic or cultural background and/or from a nontraditional family unit *(see Activity 1-17, "Exploring Diversity, Part 1," on page 1-135, Activity 1-18, "Exploring Diversity, Part 2," on page 1-137; and Activity 1-19, "Facing Diversity," on pages 1-141).*

Teaching in this setting can be challenging for any teacher, but it is particularly demanding for a new teacher. It is demanding not because these children lack the ability to learn, but because the repertoire of teaching strategies and skills that are successful with many students sometimes do not match the experience, skills, and knowledge that children with diverse backgrounds or needs bring to the classroom environment. This mismatch has the potential for creating dissonance that can lead to frustration for both teachers and students.

What can a mentor, who may have had little or no experience teaching in a pluralistic classroom, do to support a new teacher in this setting? The answer is a lot. You will most likely find yourself performing the same kinds of tasks you would with a new teacher in any setting; however, the context will determine the kinds of activities and the emphasis placed on each. You will also embark on a self-knowledge and growth adventure that can expand your notion of teaching and learning and increase your interpersonal skills in different directions. Assuming that you and a new teacher share a similar culture or background, here are some ideas:

- Help the new teacher develop a wide repertoire of teaching strategies that will assist in reaching students of differing abilities, learning styles, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Many of these strategies you have successfully tried in your classroom; some you will discover or develop as you become cognizant of the composition of the new teacher's classroom. (Note: Most children who are culturally different flourish in environments that are more eclectic in teaching approaches.)

- Help the new teacher infuse multicultural content in his or her teaching to reflect the scope of perspectives represented in his or her classroom. Presenting math word problems with content from other cultures helps each student see himself or herself included in the instructional process, while giving all students the opportunity to learn about other cultures. This kind of infusion does not detract from teaching the essential skills. (See bibliography on diversity at the end of this chapter for more ideas on how to integrate multicultural content into the existing curriculum.)

- Be a linker. This is, perhaps, the most important support strategy you can provide to the new teacher. Find ways of connecting the teacher with sources of information that provide opportunities for understanding. For example, link the new teacher to:

    - friends, people, and/or agencies in the community that serve the school and its students, such as parents, community liaisons, social workers, or translators;

    - teachers in other systems with an earlier influx of diverse students who could be excellent resources for understanding the community the students live in, providing information about what has worked or not worked for them in their classrooms, and who could serve as collaborators in raising awareness to the particular needs of teachers in these settings;

    - articles, journals, or books on diversity, multicultural education, second-language acquisition, bilingual education, ethnic studies, the changing family, socioeconomics, and the teaching/learning process (see bibliography at the end of this chapter);

    - conferences and workshops on learning styles, gender differences, or sexual orientation and their effect on instructional strategies and curriculum;

    - higher education institutions and programs dealing with children with special needs, racial and ethnic diversity, bilingual education, English as a Second Language, and international studies; and

    - anthropology, psychology, and sociology journals that can help in understanding specific nuances and behaviors of particular cultures.

- Be a co-researcher. Help the new teacher go beyond the surface of observations. Document findings and information about the student(s). Question assumptions and expectations and be extremely cautious of labeling. Some possible questions to consider on a regular basis are:
    - What strengths does each student bring to the learning situation for himself or herself and other students in the classroom?
    - What particular behaviors do students exhibit that I am labeling as odd or negative or connect with some kind of deficit? How is this same behavior interpreted in the students' home environment?
    - Can the problems I am identifying as language deficits be the result of a different use of language or grammar and/or phonetic interference (as is the case of second-language learners who unconsciously transfer the grammatical rules of their native language and use phonetic approximations found in their mother tongue)?
    - What skills, both social and academic, do students need to acquire to become contributors in the larger societal context? How can I help students acquire these skills without curtailing their sense of identity?
- Be a cultural mediator. Help the new teacher assist his or her minority students acquire the skills necessary to survive and succeed in the majority culture without lessening the value of the home culture. Research indicates that minority students who are positively oriented toward their home culture as well as the majority culture are more likely to succeed.
- Advocate for the new teacher and his or her students. Talk to other teachers and administrators about the particular needs of the new teacher and his or her students. Chances are that the school will continue experiencing an increase in diversity that will impact other classrooms as well. The sooner some support is in place, the better equipped the staff will be to address the new realities.

How Can Mentors Assist a New Teacher from a Different Background?

Mentoring a teacher from a different cultural, racial, or socioeconomic background requires the same kind of awareness that is needed to teach students from different cultures, races, or socioeconomic backgrounds. Mentors must be aware of factors that impact the interpersonal, instructional, and institutional dimensions of teaching and learning for students and adults from varying backgrounds (Gilbert and Gay 1985, Montero-Sieburth and Perez 1987, Grant and Sleeter 1988, and Hilliard 1989).

Schools are beginning to recognize the need to have a staff that is more reflective of the world outside the school, to provide nonminority students with the opportunity to experience diversity in a natural way, and to provide minority students with role models to whom they can relate. But, as any other institution that is striving to engage people who have traditionally been excluded from their ranks, schools need to develop positive means of interpreting and responding to the issues this increased diversity presents.

Mentors can play a very significant role in the professional and personal life of a new teacher from a different background. Mentoring that teacher can provide the experienced teacher with the opportunity to learn more about the nuances of a particular culture, race, or socioeconomic background; expand his or her teaching repertoire to include strategies that work well with specific populations; and broaden his or her perception of society in relation to schooling.

There are a variety of activities that can be undertaken to assist a new teacher, whether from a different background or not, as listed below:

- share and discuss information about the school, its programs, hierarchical structure, rules and regulations for teachers and students, and details about the "culture" of the organization. Keep the new teacher updated as to what is happening at the board level, within community organizations, etc.

- be an advocate for the new teacher. Many minority teachers, especially new ones, feel isolated and alienated from the rest of the faculty. Identify the new teacher's strengths and, after consulting with the new teacher, offer other staff access to his or her expertise. This will give the new teacher more exposure and access to others within the organization.

- be prepared to deal with societal issues, such as racism and prejudice, in a positive, assertive manner. Sometimes they come from the people or places least expected and in ways that range from blatant to very subtle.

    - Constructively address racial or ethnic jokes on an individual basis.

    - Identify people in your system that could help you and the new teacher deal with difficult situations effectively (for example, affirmative action staff in your community, civic organizations that deal with issues of racism and prejudice). The most difficult situations can often yield excellent opportunities for adults and children to learn about themselves, ignorance, tolerance, and living in a diverse world.

- learn to "read" some of the behaviors of the new teacher in the light of his or her intended meaning in the same way teachers of minority students need to learn to suspend judgment and review the facts of any given behavior under new configurations.

- facilitate opportunities for the new teacher to have conversations with other minority teachers.

Summary

Mentoring new teachers, regardless of who they are and who their students are, requires very special talents, abilities, and skills at the professional and interpersonal levels. Knowledge of the craft of teaching alone will not be sufficient to ensure optimum mentoring performance. Good interpersonal skills can be the key element for a successful mentoring experience for both parties in any setting.

In the case of mentoring in circumstances in which cultural, racial, or socioeconomic differences are salient features, the interpersonal skills of the mentor and his or her tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty coupled with a strong desire for continuous self-examination are stretched to new limits. The tension between building a sense of community in the classroom or the school and cherishing and valuing diverse backgrounds, points of view, belief systems and values can challenge most if not all previous assumptions about the self, the school, and the society in which we live.

Conclusion

Growth is one of the desired outcomes of education. Mentoring, as a successful educational venture, must result in growth for everyone involved. That means applying the best that we know about teaching and learning at all levels of the educational system. The mentoring process should reflect the same sound principles of teaching and learning that can be found in the best classrooms. Helping human beings of any age to grow requires similar kinds of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Understanding how people develop, learn, and change is fundamental to any educational endeavor.

Your decision to become a mentor assumes a willingness to learn a new role and to help others do likewise. A mentor must be ready to learn and grow and be capable of nurturing the learning and growth of others, specifically new teachers. Knowledge, skills, and dispositions grounded in adult development, reflective practice, the change process, and diversity are essential for successful mentoring.

You need to understand adult development so that you might offer the necessary support and challenge at the appropriate time. A knowledge of teacher development, which maps out a road to improved practice, makes it much more likely that teachers will grow along that path. A vision of the next destination helps ensure subsequent arrival. The many patterns of adult and teacher development outlined here offer mentors and new teachers multiple vehicles to understand their own growth. Those who anticipate their own development will tend to be better educators.

Reflection is another key component of a mentoring program. Learning to practice and value all the different modes of reflection promises increased effectiveness for mentors and new teachers alike. As this chapter states, collaborative action research is a dynamic way of learning. This level of reflection encourages us to risk accepting new roles, to implement changes based upon what we learn, and to grow as educators. By selecting an issue, collecting data, making meaning of the information, and making changes collaboratively, a new sense of collegiality can be fostered while we improve our practice.

You, as a mentor, also need to know about the change process. With this knowledge, you can periodically step out of the current situation and evaluate your progress. Understanding the meaning of educational change allows mentors to put their efforts into perspective, to assess their effectiveness, to predict upcoming events, and to plan the next steps. Understanding change is the key to managing it successfully. Mentors are change agents who, by accepting their role, are obliged not only to influence the development of new teachers but also the ongoing transformation of teaching and learning in their school communities.

Knowledge of diversity -- those aspects which make each of us unique -- and the means by which that understanding can enrich and make a mentoring relationship work is also important. We cannot assist new teachers to develop further without enabling them to understand their own uniqueness and that of the students and teachers who surround them.

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 1

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
1-1. Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity (page 1-51)	To familiarize participants with research presented in Chapter 1 pertaining to adult development, reflective practice, change, and diversity, and provide a philosophical foundation for a mentoring program	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise
1-2. Becoming Acquainted with Stage Theories (page 1-55)	To gain an understanding of the theories of Kohlberg, Gilligan, Loevinger, Kegan, Perry, Hunt, Kolb, and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule; observe the progressions in different stage theories; and determine one's own position on one theorist's progression	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Small-group work Individual work Journal writing
1-3. Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1 (page 1-59)	To introduce Hunt's conceptual stages, the levels of structure needed by a teacher, and appropriate supports and/or challenges to create cognitive dissonance and growth	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Presentation Discussion Small-group work
1-4. Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2 (page 1-65)	To identify teacher characteristics and appropriate supports and challenges	60 minutes	Application	Case study Small-group work
1-5. Generation of Developmental Sequence of Observable Teacher Behaviors (page 1-85)	To present another view of the progression of development in adults	45 minutes	Awareness	Small-group work
1-6. Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Characteristics and Developmental Levels (page 1-87)	To place teacher characteristics in Loevinger's framework of ego development	120 minutes	Application	Small-group work Carousel brain-storming Individual work-written assignment
1-7. Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Supports and Challenges (page 1-95)	To identify appropriate supports and challenges for Loevinger's stages of ego development	60-90 minutes	Application	Presentation Discussion Case study

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 1 (continued)

	Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
1-8.	Developing an Action Plan to Link Supports and Challenges to Identified Teacher Characteristics (page 1-103)	To develop possible ways to support new teachers and colleagues	60-90 minutes	Application	Case study Small-group work and discussion Development of action plan
1-9.	Reflection -- Understanding Technical and Critical Reflection (page 1-105)	To understand the differences between technical and critical reflection, encourage participants to go beyond technical reflection to develop a more rational perspective on teaching and learning, and recognize the importance of critical reflection	70-90 minutes	Awareness Application	Small-group work and discussion Classroom situations Journal writing
1-10.	Making Research Real (page 1-109)	To introduce the concept of action research, explore its many uses, identify the difference between traditional and action research, and acknowledge specific ways of using action research as mentors work with new teachers	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise
1-11.	Keeping a Journal for Collegial Dialogue (page 1-113)	To provide participants with an opportunity to utilize the process of writing as one way of reflecting on their teaching practice	60 minutes	Application	Journal writing Small-group discussion
1-12.	Change Begins with Each of Us (page 1-117)	To familiarize participants with the nature of change around us and to consider how we all deal with it personally	60-90 minutes	Application	Journal writing Small- and large-group discussion
1-13.	Open-Ended Questions (page 1-121)	To identify mentors' or new teachers' concerns in the mentoring relationship	60 minutes	Application	Journal writing Discussion in dyads Problem solving
1-14.	Stages of Concern about Mentoring (page 1-123)	To identify mentors' concerns about their new role and to consider how new teachers' concerns about the teaching role can be identified and addressed	90 minutes	Application	Small- and large-group discussion Problem solving
1-15.	Mentors as Change Agents (page 1-129)	To help participants consider the variety of skills that they might use in their new role as mentors	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Small- and large-group discussion

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ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 1 (continued)

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
1-16. Becoming a Mentor: A Personal Needs Assessment and Growth Plan (page 1-133)	To develop a growth plan based upon a mentor needs assessment	60-120 minutes	Application	Nominal group process Individual work Development of growth plan
1-17. Exploring Diversity, Part 1 (page 1-135)	To assist participants in assessing their own conceptions of diversity and how these conceptions influence working relationships with colleagues and students	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Individual work Discussion
1-18. Exploring Diversity, Part 2 (page 1-137)	To assist participants in assessing their own conceptions of diversity and how these conceptions influence working relationships with colleagues and students	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Individual work Discussion
1-19. Facing Diversity (page 1-141)	To understand the issues and realities of teaching in pluralistic school and community environments	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise

ACTIVITY 1-1

UNDERSTANDING ADULT DEVELOPMENT, REFLECTIVE PRACTICE, THE CHANGE PROCESS, AND DIVERSITY

Purpose(s): To familiarize participants with research presented in Chapter 1 pertaining to adult development, reflective practice, change, and diversity, and provide a philosophical foundation for a mentoring program

Materials: Directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 1-C on page 1-171, enough copies of the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 1" and excerpts from Chapter 1 (see Trainer's Notes) for each participant, newsprint, easels, and markers

Trainer's Notes: You might find it helpful to review "How to Make an Activity Your Own: A Working Checklist" in Appendix 1-A on page 1-163 and the "Guide to Facilitation" in Appendix 1-B on page 1-165 prior to conducting this or any of the activities in Chapter 1. The material in Appendix 1-A includes a checklist of items to consider when you customize an activity to meet your own needs. Appendix 1-B identifies particular facilitator skills and behaviors that can contribute to the success of your sessions. Since an understanding of theory underlying adult development, reflective practice, the change process, and diversity is essential to effective mentoring, the aim of this activity is to introduce the theory in a way that enables mentors to apply it to themselves. As they become "experts" on a particular topic, they will discuss that topic with other mentors in terms of what is happening in their mentoring relationships.

You should have read Chapter 1 prior to conducting this activity. Background knowledge will help you answer any questions that arise.

You might also find it helpful to refer to the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 1-C on page 1-171. Some deviation from the general directions is noted in the steps identified below.

You will need to have or make enough copies of the following sections of Chapter 1 for each participant. Although participants will be responsible for reading excerpts from this chapter, most of them will appreciate receiving the entire chapter to read at their leisure. As it cannot be divided into excerpts of the same length, participants would also have the opportunity to read other sections if time permitted.

It is suggested that the chapter be divided into the following sections:

"Adult Development," pages 1-2 through 1-11;

"Teacher Development/Adult Learning Styles," pages 1-11 through 1-19;

"Reflective Practice," pages 1-19 through 1-32;

"The Change Process," pages 1-32 through 1-39; and

"Diversity," pages 1-39 through 1-46.

So that participants will be able to refer to the focus questions during their reading, you may wish to have them written on newsprint, an overhead, or on a separate piece of paper that can be distributed to each participant. You might find it helpful to share the excerpts with participants in advance. This will allow for more thoughtful reading and enable more time for sharing in expert groups.

If you are using this activity with an audience other than mentor teachers, you will need to restate the focus questions for discussion. For example, if you use it with a multiconstituent planning group, question 3 might be reworded as follows: "Identify one implication of the information to the development of your district's mentoring program."

This is a cooperative-learning activity. A jigsaw process can be used in a variety of ways, and participants should be encouraged to consider its use in their classrooms.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of a jigsaw activity -- to provide a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about topics that have been selected. In this case, the theory presented in the first chapter on adult development, teacher development/adult learning styles, reflective practice, the change process, and diversity.

2. Share the questions on the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 1." This will offer participants a focus to their reading.

3. Have participants form home groups of five. Briefly describe each excerpt so that they can make an informed choice. Then, ask each member of the home group to choose one of the five topics.

4. Have participants read their articles independently.

5. Then, have them form homogeneous or expert groups. These participants have all read the same article. Have them discuss, identify, and record on newsprint:

   - major themes of their excerpt from Chapter 1,
   - the relationship of these themes to particular events in their classrooms, and
   - implications of the information for their relationship with their new teachers.

6. Have participants return to their home groups. Then, have experts share one major theme, one relationship of a theme to an event in their classroom, and an implication of the information for their relationship with their new teachers. Record their findings on newsprint.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

FOCUS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION OF CHAPTER 1

1. What are the general themes of your section?

2. Relate each theme to a particular event you have experienced in the classroom.

3. Identify one implication of the information for your relationship with your new teacher or experienced newcomer.

ACTIVITY 1-2

BECOMING ACQUAINTED WITH STAGE THEORIES

Purpose(s): To gain an understanding of the theories of Kohlberg, Gilligan, Loevinger, Kegan, Perry, Hunt, Kolb, and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule; observe the progressions in different stage theories; and determine one's own position on one theorist's progression

Materials: Sets of eight envelopes labeled *Kohlberg, Gilligan, Loevinger, Kegan, Perry, Hunt, Kolb,* and *Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule* which contain descriptions of each respective theorist's stages -- one stage or level per piece of paper and with no indication of level or stage (see examples on page 1-58); enough copies of Figure 1.2 on pages 1-5 through 1-7 and Figure 1.3 on page 1-8 for each participant; journal (see Activity 1-11, "Keeping a Journal for Collegial Dialogue," on page 1-113); newsprint; easels; markers; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity enables participants to order the descriptions of a theorist's levels or stages into a progression that makes sense to them. It provides a vehicle through which participants can ponder the progressions of adult development, compare the stage theories, and assess their own stage of development on any of the progressions.

Create an equal number of envelopes for each theorist. Each participant should receive one envelope. Using the descriptions on Figures 1.2 and 1.3, put every stage of each theorist's theory on a separate piece of paper. Then, mix the stages of a single theorist and place in an envelope. (See "Examples of Descriptions . . ." on page 1-58).

The value of this exercise is in making the theories of adult development come alive for participants. It is their first chance to understand the importance of knowing stage theories in working with a new teacher or colleagues who exhibit a stage of development different from their own.

Steps 7-10 are optional. If included, they offer participants a chance to become more intimately acquainted with a particular theorist's views and to share them with others. In order to complete the optional steps, you will need enough copies of the following excerpts for each participant:

> "The Stage Theory of Lawrence Kohlberg." In *Promoting Adult Growth in Schools: The Promise of Professional Development* by Sarah Levine, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989), 86-94.
>
> "The Stage Theory of Jane Loevinger." In *Promoting Adult Growth in Schools: The Promise of Professional Development* by Sarah Levine, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989), 95-101.

"The Stage Theory of Robert Kegan." In *Promoting Adult Growth in Schools: The Promise of Professional Development* by Sarah Levine, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989), 102-113.

"Cognitive and Ethical Growth: The Making of Meaning." In *The Modern American College: Responding to the New Realities of Diverse Students and a Changing Society* by Arthur W. Chickering and Associates, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1981), 76-116.

"Connected Education for Women" by Blythe McVicker Clinchy, Mary Field Belenky, Nancy Goldberger, and Jill Mattuck Tarule. Fall 1985. In *Journal of Education* 167 (3): 28-45.

"Two Perspectives: Oneself, Relationships, and Morality" by Nona Plessner Lyons. In *Mapping the Moral Domain* edited by Carol Gilligan, Janie Victoria Ward, and Jill McLean Taylor. (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1988), 21-48.

For more background, you might wish to consult any or all of the following: Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987 (for history of adult development); Burden 1990 and Oja 1991 (for review of several theorists' views); and Levine 1989 (for review of Erikson, Levinson, Gould, Kohlberg, Loevinger, and Kegan). Full citations for these resources can be found in the bibliography for adult development at the end of this chapter.

***Process/Steps*:**

1. Introduce the concept of adult development -- its history, the three primary areas of study (moral, ego, and cognitive), and the major theorists in each area of study.

2. Ask participants to choose an envelope of a theorist who interests them. Then, ask them to form pairs as follows:

   - Kohlberg and Gilligan,
   - Loevinger and Kegan,
   - Perry and Hunt, or
   - Kolb and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule.

3. Have participants open their envelopes and arrange the descriptions in a sequence that seems logical to them.

4. Have participants review each other's sequencing of descriptions, discuss each other's ordering, and reach an agreement on the sequencing of the descriptions for both theorists.

5. Have each pair record the similarities and differences they observe between the two theorists on newsprint.

6. In a large group, have each pair share one similarity or one difference between their theorists and then discuss similarities and differences of all eight theorists. As similarities and differences are shared, record them on newsprint in front of the group.

7. (Optional) Ask each participant to again choose a particular theorist, and distribute respective reading assignments to them. Give participants approximately 30 minutes to read their excerpts. Their objective is to gain an understanding of the major theories of that particular individual.

8. (Optional) Regroup participants so that those who read a specific theorist are seated together. Give them 10 minutes to share their views of the major themes of each theorist, determine which ones they agree upon, and identify a reporter who will share those agreed-upon themes with the whole group.

9. (Optional) Have the reporters from each small group share their findings with the whole group. As they identify a finding, record it on newsprint for everyone to see.

10. (Optional) Facilitate a brief discussion among participants as to how an understanding of these theories might be important in their mentoring relationships.

11. Distribute copies of Figures 1.2 and 1.3 from Chapter 1 to participants. Ask them to choose one theorist's progression and to identify their position on that theorist's progression. Have them record that position and two reasons for choosing that position in their journal.

Time Required: 60 minutes (Steps 1-6 and 11)
60 minutes (Optional steps 7-10)

EXAMPLES OF DESCRIPTIONS TO BE PLACED IN ENVELOPES FROM FIGURES 1.2 AND 1.3 FOR ACTIVITY 1-2

Envelope labeled *Gilligan* will contain three squares of paper with the following descriptions on each:

> Individual's primary concern is for one's own survival in the face of powerlessness.
>
> Individual seeks goodness in caring for others and values self-sacrifice as the highest virtue.
>
> Individual recognizes oneself as a legitimate object of care, and this insight becomes the framework for an ethic of care.

Envelope labeled *Loevinger* will contain seven squares of paper with the following descriptions on each:

> Persons at this level tend to blame others, circumstances, or parts of themselves for which they feel no responsibility. They are concerned with controlling and being controlled.
>
> Persons at this level are preoccupied with compliance to external rules; acceptance and approval are vitally important.
>
> Persons at this level have a growing awareness of self, particularly of one's inner feelings.
>
> Persons at this level can be highly critical of themselves. Interpersonal communications are especially valued. Their sensitivity to others deepens. They are more reflective than in earlier stages, alert to choices, motivated to achieve goals, concerned with living up to ideals, and interested in self-improvement.
>
> Persons at this level are more tolerant of themselves and others due to recognition of individual differences and complexities. Interpersonal relationships become deeper and more intense.
>
> Persons at this level recognize other people's need for autonomy. They have a high tolerance for ambiguity, accept the existence of inner conflict, and concern themselves with social problems beyond their own needs and experiences.
>
> Persons at this stage transcend conflicts and polarities. They have developed a firm sense of identity and have high respect for themselves and others.

ACTIVITY 1-3

PROMOTING TEACHER GROWTH, PART 1

Purpose(s): To introduce Hunt's conceptual stages, the levels of structure needed by a teacher, and appropriate supports and/or challenges to create cognitive dissonance and growth

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Hunt's Levels of Structure," "Descriptions of Hunt's Conceptual Stages: Teacher Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching," and "Conditions Needed to Promote Growth" for each participant; overhead entitled "Conceptual Stage Cautions"; overhead projector and screen; blank paper; newsprint; easels; markers; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity should be preceded by the first activity for Chapter 1, "Understanding Adult Development, Reflective Practice, the Change Process, and Diversity," as it focuses on the findings of Hunt regarding the intellectual development of adults. Prior to conducting this activity, you might find it helpful to review the section on adult development in Chapter 1, particularly the information presented in Figure 1.3 on page 1-8; to consult Hunt's (1987) book entitled *Beginning with Ourselves in Practice, Theory, and Human Affairs*; and to read pages 74-77 of the article "Experienced Teachers: Agents for Revitalization and Renewal as Mentors and Teacher Educators" (Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987).

During Step 12, you may wish to refer to the vignette in Applying Theory to Practice B on page 1-16 in Chapter 1.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to think of a teacher with whom they have worked and briefly describe in writing characteristics or behaviors of that teacher.
2. Present "Hunt's Levels of Structure," using the handout.
3. Ask participants to identify which stage most accurately describes their colleague.
4. Have participants turn to the person next to them. Ask them to share, in turn, their description of a colleague and discuss their reasons for determining which stage best describes that person.

Source: Adapted with permission of the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division of Program Approval from *North Carolina Mentor/Support Team Training Program*. (c) 1987, 271-301. Authors: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman Sprinthall.

5. As a whole group, ask participants to brainstorm descriptors of Stage A teachers. Record these on newsprint.

6. Ask participants to brainstorm descriptors of Stage C teachers. Record these on newsprint.

7. Ask participants to brainstorm descriptors of Stage B teachers or discuss the characteristics of Stage B teachers in light of what participants now know about Stage A and C teachers.

8. Ask participants to form groups of four or five with others who have described a colleague in the same stage.

9. Give one copy of the handout "Descriptions of Hunt's Conceptual Stages: Teacher Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching" to each participant.

10. Have each group identify a recorder.

11. Have participants (in small groups) discuss the similarities and differences between their stage descriptors and the one provided on the handout.

12. Have groups brainstorm how they could most effectively mentor a new teacher at this stage. Ask them to identify what kind of structure, support, and challenge would be most appropriate.

13. Have each group report out, identifying:

    - their stage,
    - the kind of structure,
    - appropriate supports, and
    - appropriate challenges.

14. Present the overhead "Conceptual Stage Cautions." Remind participants that understanding Hunt's conceptual levels is a means of identifying the most effective way mentors can assist new teachers. It is critical not to make snap judgments, but rather to look at one's behavior over time and in other situations. It is also important to point out that for a variety of reasons (e.g., when overwhelmed, learning something new, or faced with a personal crisis), anyone can shift to an earlier stage.

15. Distribute a copy of the handout "Conditions Needed to Promote Growth" to each participant. Ask participants to observe their new teacher prior to the next training session to ascertain that teacher's conceptual stage and level of structure. Ask them to record brief notes on their observations and bring them to the next session.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

HUNT'S LEVELS OF STRUCTURE

There are a number of aspects to the concept of structure. Since the term *structure* has ambiguous meanings, the operational differences between Conceptual Stages A, B, and C instruction are based on the following:

	Stage A	Stage B	Stage C
Structure:	high	moderate (mixture high/low)	low
Concepts:	concrete		abstract
Time span:	short		long
Frequency of practice:	multiple practice		single
Advance organizers:	multiple use of organizers		few (if any) advance organizers
Complexity of learning tasks:	divided into small steps and recycled		learning tasks clustered into "wholes"
Theory:	concretely matched with experiential examples		generalized, including collaborative classroom research
Instructor support:	consistent and frequent		occasional

The ultimate goal of growth in mentoring is to assist mentors involved in helping new teachers move toward Stage C. The need to match and gradually mismatch the amount of structure is necessary. The mentor/support team members should match the amount of structure needed and then gradually mismatch to promote the new teacher's growth toward Stage C.

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

DESCRIPTIONS OF HUNT'S CONCEPTUAL STAGES: TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING AND TEACHING

Stage A

- Shows strong evidence of concrete thinking.
- Sees knowledge as fixed.
- Employs a singular tried-and-true method.
- Exhibits compliance as a learner and expects the same from pupils.
- Appears low on self-direction and initiative; needs detailed instructions.
- Doesn't distinguish between theory and facts.
- Relies almost exclusively on advance organizers.
- Views teaching as "filling the students up with facts."
- Stays at Bloom's Levels One and Two regardless of student level.
- Enjoys highly structured activities for self and for pupils.
- Appears very uncomfortable with ambiguous assignments.
- Does not question authority.
- Follows a curriculum guide as if it were "carved in stone."
- Verbalizes feelings at a limited level; has difficulty recognizing feelings in pupils.
- Appears reluctant to talk about own inadequacies; blames pupils exclusively.

Stage B

- Shows evidence of a growing awareness of difference between concrete versus abstract thinking.
- Separates facts, opinions, and theories about teaching and learning.
- Employs some different teaching models in accord with student differences.
- Displays evidence of teaching for generalization as well as skills.
- Shows some evidence of systematic "matching and mismatching"; can vary structure.
- Exhibits some openness to innovations and can make some appropriate adaptations.
- Shows sensitivity to pupil's emotional needs.
- Enjoys some level of autonomy; self-directed learning a goal for self and for the pupils.
- Employs Bloom's Taxonomy, One though Four, when appropriate.
- Produces evaluations that are appropriate to assignments.

Stage C

- Understands knowledge as a process of successive approximations.
- Shows evidence of originality in adapting innovations to the classroom.
- Appears comfortable in applying all appropriate teaching models.
- Is most articulate in analyzing one's own teaching in both content and feeling.
- Has a high tolerance for ambiguity and frustration; can stay on task despite major distractions.
- Does not automatically comply with directions -- asks examiner's reasons.
- Fosters an intensive questioning approach with students.
- Can use all six levels of Bloom's Taxonomy when appropriate.
- Responds appropriately to the emotional needs of all pupils.
- Can "match and mismatch" with expert flexibility.
- Exhibits careful evaluations based on objective criteria according to level of assignment.

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CONDITIONS NEEDED TO PROMOTE GROWTH

1. Significant role-taking experience (as teaching)
    - Action-oriented
    - Not a contrived role play
    - Places person in more complex, real-life experience
2. Consistent, guided reflection
    - Person thinks about meaning of own experiences
    - Person processes what changes are occurring and what still needs to occur
    - Unreflected experience leads to no change, only repetition
3. Balance of action/reflection
    - Equal portions of each
    - Provides appropriate experiences to ensure the presence of the first two conditions
4. Positive support and challenge
    - Atmosphere of trust
    - Support is key element in helping process
    - Confrontation and challenge is healthy if support is present
5. Continuous exposure to all conditions above
    - Cannot be short-term or one-shot
    - Growth requires time

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59. Original source from "The Teacher as an Adult Learner: A Cognitive-Developmental View," *Eighty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1983), 27-30.

CONCEPTUAL STAGE CAUTIONS

- multiple observations over time are required

- careful assessment of data is necessary

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

ACTIVITY 1-4

PROMOTING TEACHER GROWTH, PART 2

Purpose(s): To identify teacher characteristics and appropriate supports and challenges

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Descriptions of Hunt's Conceptual Stages: Teacher Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching" (on page 1-62) and "Hunt's Levels of Structure" (on page 1-61) for each participant; enough copies of the Case Study/Worksheets for Gary, Carole, Bill, Betty, and Tom, and the handout "Case Studies Summary" for each group of five participants; overheads "Conceptual Stage Cautions" (on page 1-64) and "Need for Structure"; overhead projector and screen; blank paper; pencils or pens; and videotapes (optional)

Trainer's Notes: Prior to conducting this activity, you might find it helpful to review the section on adult development in Chapter 1, particularly the information presented in Figure 1.3 on page 1-8. You might also read pages 46-47 of the chapter entitled "Adult Development: Insights on Staff Development" (Oja 1991) in *Staff Development for Education in the '90s: New Demands, New Realities, and New Perspectives.*

You might wish to use the following in place of the case studies: your own videotapes of teacher classroom or conferencing behaviors or your own teachers' journal entries.

Process/Steps:

1. Briefly review the handouts "Description of Hunt's Conceptual Stages" and "Hunt's Levels of Structure" and the overheads "Conceptual Stage Cautions" and "Need for Structure." (You may refer participants to handouts from a previous session or create overheads for Hunt's conceptual stages and levels of structure.)

2. Pass out a blank sheet of paper to each participant. Ask participants to individually record six to eight phrases or sentences that describe the behaviors they observed in their new teachers since the last session. In addition, request that they identify their new teachers' conceptual stages and needs for structure on the back of the sheet.

3. Collect the sheets. Redistribute them randomly to participants. Have one participant at each table share the description he or she received. Have the group identify the appropriate conceptual stage and level of structure, check the response on the back of the sheet, and discuss if responses differ.

4. Have participants form groups of five.

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

5. Distribute case studies/worksheets for Gary, Carole, Bill, Betty, and Tom to each group.

6. Have participants read one case study and complete the corresponding worksheet. Each group member should read a different case study.

7. Have each group select a reporter, discuss their responses for each case study, and record them on the handout "Case Studies Summary."

8. Review answers for each case study in a large group, using the overhead "Answer Key for Five Case Studies." If responses vary, discuss the reasons why each group chose its answer.

Time Required: 30 minutes (Steps 1-4)
30 minutes (Steps 5-8)

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDY/WORKSHEET: GARY

Gary is a new teacher who came highly recommended on the basis of his academic achievement. He was described as earnest, hardworking, and extremely conscientious. He dresses very neatly and is polite almost to a fault.

He teaches a question-and-answer method almost exclusively. Gary says that the children (sixth graders) have to learn the facts before they can interpret. The material in the lesson plan must be covered on schedule by everyone. He follows his lesson plan literally.

In your meeting, Gary appeared with a notebook and asked you at least 25 questions about methods. He carefully wrote down your answers. In between his questions about methods, he asked questions about the mentoring program and appeared confused about what he is expected to do as a first-year teacher. He is very serious and rarely shows humor. He exhibits little awareness of feelings.

You sense that Gary has a strong wish to please you and wants you to outline just what he needs to do to gain your approval. He also worries about the students' opinion of him and whether or not the parents view him as an effective teacher.

Instructions: Underline statements used as clues to determine the conceptual stage and level of structure. Designate the stage/mode and structure based on the clues you underlined.

Conceptual Stage/Mode:

A ____________________

B ____________________

C ____________________

Level of Structure:

high _____

moderate _____ (mixture high/low)

low _____

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

WORKSHEET: GARY

(Read and answer questions using the appropriate case study.)

1. According to the clues you have underlined and the stage you have selected, what degree of structure will Gary need?

   ☐ high ☐ moderate (mixture high/low) ☐ low

2. How many opportunities will Gary need to practice and receive feedback before he shows change in his teaching behavior?

   ☐ many (consistently) ☐ some (periodically) ☐ few

3. a. Will Gary use your ideas or his own?

   ☐ his ☐ some of both ☐ yours

   b. Should you show him your ideas?

   ☐ yes ☐ no

   c. What is your next step if you move to a helpful mismatch of structure?

   ☐ Ask him to use his own ideas.
   ☐ Give him choices between two of yours.
   ☐ Continue allowing him to use yours.

4. How self-directed will Gary be?

   ☐ high ☐ moderately ☐ low

5. How many opportunities will Gary need to observe an effective teacher who demonstrates the competency on which he is to work?

   ☐ one ☐ two ☐ many

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

6. How often will Gary share feelings?

☐ frequently ☐ seldom ☐ rarely

7. How much initiative will Gary take in writing a plan of action for his professional development plan?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

8. How much support and encouragement will Gary need?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

9. For how long do you need to provide high structure? Write you answer here:

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDY/WORKSHEET: CAROLE

Carole is in her first year of teaching and is participating in the mentoring program. This summer she attended a TESA workshop sponsored by the state education agency's regional center. Carole is interested in working with May Lynn, an experienced, successful, fifth grade teacher who also attended the TESA workshop.

Carole shows understanding of lesson design in your conversation with her concerning lesson planning, but you've noticed she has difficulty identifying the learning outcomes for her lessons. She shows flexibility and adaptability to her students' needs the majority of the time. However, Carole could use some refinement of her responsiveness to students. Occasionally she doesn't pick up on the "cues" students send her. She occasionally makes snap judgments about a student.

She is excellent on higher-order questioning, open-ended questions, and direct teaching method. She's a little uncomfortable with student feelings and the use of role plays and small groups. In your meeting, she was comfortable most of the time. She showed some discomfort when you showed her a section on how to set up small groups. She said, "I think I may lose control of the class if I don't teach to the whole group."

Instructions: Underline statements used as clues to determine the conceptual stage and level of structure. Designate the stage/mode and structure based on the clues you underlined.

Conceptual Stage/Mode:	Level of Structure:
A ____________________	high _____
B ____________________	moderate _____ (mixture high/low)
C ____________________	low _____

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

WORKSHEET: CAROLE

(Read and answer questions using the appropriate case study.)

1. According to the clues you have underlined and the stage you have selected, what degree of structure will Carole need?

   ☐ high ☐ moderate (mixture high/low) ☐ low

2. How many opportunities will Carole need to practice and receive feedback before she shows change in her teaching behavior?

   ☐ many (consistently) ☐ some (periodically) ☐ few

3. a. Will Carole use your ideas or her own?

   ☐ hers ☐ some of both ☐ yours

   b. Should you show her your ideas?

   ☐ yes ☐ no

   c. What is your next step if you move to a helpful mismatch of structure?

   ☐ Ask her to use her own ideas.
   ☐ Give her choices between two of yours.
   ☐ Continue allowing her to use yours.

4. How self-directed will Carole be?

   ☐ high ☐ moderate ☐ low

5. How many opportunities will Carole need to observe an effective teacher who demonstrates the competency on which she is to work?

   ☐ one ☐ two ☐ many

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

6. How often will Carole share feelings?

☐ frequently ☐ seldom ☐ rarely

7. How much initiative will Carole take in writing a plan of action for her professional development plan?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

8. How much support and encouragement will Carole need?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

9. For how long do you need to provide moderate structure? Write your answer here:

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDY/WORKSHEET: BILL

Bill moved to your school district after five years of teaching. He is very excited about teaching humanities to academically gifted junior high students. After an initial observation, you determine that Bill is relating well to his students and that he uses a variety of methods to present subject matter to them. Also, you note that he helps some of the quietest kids in the class verbalize some of their feelings of anxiety about using inquiry.

In your meeting he was attentive, but often asked for some additional resources to back up your suggestions. He was at ease nonverbally. Just as you left the class, he was outlining a minilecture on the blackboard -- "Why do some Native Americans not regard Thanksgiving as a natural holiday?" You felt like staying.

Bill attended a seminar that the Director of Exceptional Children sponsored concerning Renzulli's Inquiry Method. Beth, a ninth grade English teacher, attended that same session. They have collaborated on a new unit going beyond the Renzulli Inquiry Model, and you are impressed with the changes.

Bill and Beth want to develop lessons using the Inquiry Method that both can use in their respective classes. Bill often takes information he has received in workshops and, in collaboration with another teacher, will change it to fit the classes in the school.

Instructions: Underline statements used as clues to determine the conceptual stage and level of structure. Designate the stage/mode and structure based on the clues you underlined.

Conceptual Stage/Mode:		Level of Structure:		
A	____________________	high	______	
B	____________________	moderate	______	(mixture high/low)
C	____________________	low	______	

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

WORKSHEET: BILL

(Read and answer questions using the appropriate case study.)

1. According to the clues you have underlined and the stage you have selected, what degree of structure will Bill need?

   ☐ high
   ☐ moderate (mixture high/low)
   ☐ low

2. How many opportunities will Bill need to practice and receive feedback before he shows change in his teaching behavior?

   ☐ many (consistently)
   ☐ some (periodically)
   ☐ few

3. a. Will Bill use your ideas or his own?

   ☐ his
   ☐ some of both
   ☐ yours

   b. Should you show him your ideas?

   ☐ yes
   ☐ no

   c. What is your next step if you move to a helpful mismatch of structure?

   ☐ Ask him to use his own ideas.
   ☐ Give him choices between two of yours.
   ☐ Continue allowing him to use yours.

4. How self-directed will Bill be?

   ☐ high
   ☐ moderately
   ☐ low

5. How many opportunities will Bill need to observe an effective teacher who demonstrates the competency on which he is to work?

   ☐ one
   ☐ two
   ☐ many

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

6. How often will Bill share feelings?

☐ frequently ☐ seldom ☐ rarely

7. How much initiative will Bill take in writing a plan of action for his professional development plan?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

8. How much support and encouragement will Bill need?

☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

9. For how long do you need to provide low structure? Write your answer here:

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDY/WORKSHEET: BETTY

Betty has recently moved to your state from California where she taught for ten years. Before assuming her current position with a computer lab at the junior high level, she worked briefly for Radio Shack. When you initially observed Betty, she exhibited no major problems except a tendency to lose track of time and to thus rush closure as the bell rang.

Betty is very responsive to her class. She sees, listens, and responds to discipline problems, inattention, and learning difficulties. She displays variety in suitable teaching methods, from inductive questioning to role playing. She is not satisfied with the techniques she uses to get feedback from the students in order to measure their learning. Once in a while, she does have some difficulty in responding accurately to a variety of different feelings displayed by the students, particularly anger.

Also, you note that she does tend to favor inductive teaching, role playing, and small-group discussion. She is more comfortable in that mode. Her nonverbals, in the other, particularly using direct teaching, are not always congruent.

In your initial supervision session, she listened attentively and appeared very cooperative, especially when you focused on the open-ended modes of teaching. She seems in touch with her own feelings.

Instructions: Underline statements used as clues to determine the conceptual stage and level of structure. Designate the stage/mode and structure based on the clues you underlined.

Conceptual Stage/Mode:	Level of Structure:		
A ____________________	high	_____	
B ____________________	moderate	_____	(mixture high/low)
C ____________________	low	_____	

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

WORKSHEET: BETTY

(Read and answer questions using the appropriate case study.)

1. According to the clues you have underlined and the stage you have selected, what degree of structure will Betty need?

   ☐ high
   ☐ moderate (mixture high/low)
   ☐ low

2. How many opportunities will Betty need to practice and receive feedback before she shows change in her teaching behavior?

   ☐ many (consistently)
   ☐ some (periodically)
   ☐ few

3. a. Will Betty use your ideas or offer ideas of her own?

   ☐ hers
   ☐ some of both
   ☐ yours

   b. Should you show her your ideas?

   ☐ yes
   ☐ no

   c. What is your next step if you move to a helpful mismatch of structure?

   ☐ Ask her to use her own ideas.
   ☐ Give her choices between two of yours.
   ☐ Continue allowing her to use yours.

4. How self-directed will Betty be?

   ☐ high
   ☐ moderately
   ☐ low

5. How many opportunities will Betty need to observe an effective teacher who demonstrates the competency on which she is to work?

   ☐ one
   ☐ two
   ☐ many

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

6. How often will Betty share feelings?

   ☐ frequently ☐ seldom ☐ rarely

7. How much initiative will Betty take in writing a plan of action for her professional development plan?

   ☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

8. How much support and encouragement will Betty need?

   ☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

9. For how long do you need to provide moderate structure? Write your answer here:

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDY/WORKSHEET: TOM

Tom is an experienced math teacher who has moved to North Carolina to look after his ailing parents. He has eight years of teaching experience.

When you initially observe Tom, you are impressed with his knowledge of subject matter. However, you are concerned that he relies on one pattern of instruction. He introduces a concept, does a few problems on the board, assigns seat work to be started in class and completed as homework, and walks around while the students start the work. The next day, he checks the homework by having students put the problems on the board, row by row, student by student.

During your first observation, Tom lost his temper with Rick, a student who is learning-disabled. He yelled at him when he made the same mistake the second time, "No, you dummy! I told you, not that!"

When you discussed the incident, he apologized profusely for losing control and said it would never happen again. He says he really does like all children, but has to insist on very high standards. He seems very uncomfortable with you. You have overheard him expressing his dissatisfaction with the mentoring program and his frustration with figuring out why he, as an experienced teacher, has to participate in it.

Instructions: Underline statements used as clues to determine the conceptual stage and level of structure. Designate the stage/mode and structure based on the clues you underlined.

Conceptual Stage/Mode:		Level of Structure:		
A	____________________	high	_____	
B	____________________	moderate	_____	(mixture high/low)
C	____________________	low	_____	

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

WORKSHEET: TOM

(Read and answer questions using the appropriate case study.)

1. According to the clues you have underlined and the stage you have selected, what degree of structure will Tom need?

   ☐ high ☐ moderate (mixture high/low) ☐ low

2. How many opportunities will Tom need to practice and receive feedback before he shows change in his teaching behavior?

   ☐ many (consistently) ☐ some (periodically) ☐ few

3. a. Will Tom use your ideas or his own?

   ☐ his ☐ some of both ☐ yours

   b. Should you show him your ideas?

   ☐ yes ☐ no

   c. What is your next step if you move to a helpful mismatch of structure?

   ☐ Ask him to use his own ideas.
   ☐ Give him choices between two of yours.
   ☐ Continue allowing him to use yours.

4. How self-directed will Tom be?

   ☐ high ☐ moderately ☐ low

5. How many opportunities will Tom need to observe an effective teacher who demonstrates the competency on which he is to work?

   ☐ one ☐ two ☐ many

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

6. How often will Tom share feelings?

   ☐ frequently ☐ seldom ☐ rarely

7. How much initiative will Tom take in writing a plan of action for his professional development plan?

   ☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

8. How much support and encouragement will Tom need?

   ☐ very little ☐ moderate ☐ much initiative

9. For how long do you need to provide high structure? Write your answer here:

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

CASE STUDIES SUMMARY

Teacher	Conceptual Stage/Mode	Level of Structure
Gary		
Carole		
Bill		
Betty		
Tom		

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

NEED FOR STRUCTURE

Stage A	High
Stage B	Moderate (mixture high/low)
Stage C	Low

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

ANSWER KEY FOR FIVE CASE STUDIES

Teacher	Conceptual Stage/Mode	Level of Structure
Gary	A	High
Carole	B	Moderate
Bill	C	Low
Betty	B	Moderate
Tom	A	High

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 1-59.

ACTIVITY 1-5

GENERATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL SEQUENCE OF OBSERVABLE TEACHER BEHAVIORS

Purpose(s): To present another view of the progression of development in adults

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Teacher Behaviors," cut up into squares and placed in envelopes for small groups of five to six participants, and rubber bands

Trainer's Notes: This activity is based on Loevinger's work regarding ego development. Before utilizing this exercise, you might wish to review the section on adult development in Chapter 1, particularly pages 1-2 to 1-19, and read pages 41-44 in the article "Adult Development: Insights on Staff Development" (Oja 1991) in *Staff Development for Education in the '90s: New Demands, New Realities, and New Perspectives.*

It might be helpful to copy the descriptions on the sheet "Teacher Behaviors" on heavier stock. To prepare the contents for each envelope, cut along the lines, mix up the squares, and put all the squares from the sheets in an envelope. Prepare enough envelopes so that each group of four to six participants will have one.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask the participants to form small groups of four to six and have them identify a reporter.
2. Ask each small group to order the descriptions of teacher behaviors in its envelope into clusters of similarity that make sense to the group.
3. Have the small groups order these clusters into progressions that make sense to them. Then, have them identify their rationale for clustering and ordering the descriptions in those progressions.
4. Have the reporter for each small group share the group's rationale for clustering and ordering the descriptions of behavior with the larger group.
5. Ask each group to either number the cards in each cluster in their preferred sequence or secure each cluster in order with a rubber band and return them to the envelope. Save these clusters for Activity 1-6.

Time Required: 45 minutes

Source: Reprinted with permission of the University of New Hampshire from "Activities to Use in Learning about Adult Development Theory" by Sharon Nodie Oja. (c) 1990b, 3.

TEACHER BEHAVIORS

Unwilling to take advice	Continually asks for advice and/or affirmation on performance in classroom	Takes limited risks in teaching
Conforms with the majority in most cases	Shares new knowledge with colleagues	Incorporates research findings (action or other) and information on good practice into his or her curriculum and teaching
Helps others "grow"; not disparaging, but supportive of others "behind" him or her	Has a good sense of classroom climate, relationships, and transactions among students at any point in time; is sensitive to subtle changes; and responds in the moment	Is able to recognize and use "teachable moments"
Develops and offers lessons that are well planned so they flow smoothly; creates orderly environments	Seeks and listens to feedback (from parents, students, colleagues, etc.)	Seeks professional growth opportunities
Tends to accept ideas from others more rapidly than his or her own	Enforces classroom discipline through cajoling and bargaining rather than clearly defined and consistently enforced expectations	Accepts any suggestions unquestioningly
Doesn't voice professional opinion	Refers classroom "challenges" to principal excessively	Accepts ideas only from perceived "experts" or people who have authority over him or her
Tends to be overly critical of self and/or others	Wants to know how students perform (what they know/have learned) in broader context than classroom or school	Has a clear idea of which "rules" are the most important; weeds out nonessentials
Shows interest in how students arrive at conclusions, answers; not necessarily just interested in "right" answer	Begins to gain perspective on his or her place in the profession as a whole	Has achieved personal/professional balance

Source: Oja, Op. Cit., 1-85.

ACTIVITY 1-6

TEACHER STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT: MATCHING CHARACTERISTICS AND DEVELOPMENTAL LEVELS

Purpose(s): To place teacher characteristics in Loevinger's framework of ego development

Materials: Sequenced descriptions of "Teacher Behaviors" on cards from Activity 1-5, sheet of prepared newsprint for each small group (see Trainer's Notes), enough copies of the handouts "Theorists' Views on the Stages of Moral and Ego Development" (Figure 1.2) and "Teacher Stage Characteristics" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity builds on Activity 1-5 and, for the most part, is based on Loevinger's work on ego development. Along with Activity 1-7, it addresses the importance of understanding and expecting that adults will demonstrate behaviors that indicate developmental shifts. Many factors will contribute to a change in their usual developmental frame of reference. It is important to stress that when such behavioral shifts are understood, mentors are better able to effectively respond to new teachers and other colleagues.

You will need the envelopes that contain the squares of "Teacher Behaviors" that were sequenced by the participants in Activity 1-5. In addition, you will need to list Loevinger's stages of ego development (self-protective, conformist, conscientious-conformist, conscientious, individualistic, autonomous, and integrated) vertically in rows on a sheet of newsprint for each small group.

In Step 7, let participants know that you will invite some of them to share their thoughts with the whole group at the conclusion of this segment of the activity.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the clusters of teacher characteristics that have been loosely sequenced by participants in Activity 1-5.
2. Refer to the handout "Theorists' Views on the Stages of Moral and Ego Development" (Figure 1.2). Point out the various theories of stage development, acknowledge that there are many ways to look at adult development, and recognize that development is not as linear as presented by the theorists. That is, there is ebb and flow between stages in an individual's development. Then, focus on Loevinger's developmental sequence.
3. Ask participants to form small groups of four to six. Ask each group to identify a recorder and reporter.
4. Ask each group to match the teacher characteristics from Activity 1-5 with Loevinger's stages of ego development (on the prepared sheet of newsprint).

5. Use the carousel brainstorming technique to have small groups interact and respond to the other groups' work. In each small group, ask one member to remain with its chart to respond to other groups' questions regarding the similarities and differences in their charts. Have the other members in each small group move clockwise, as a team, to the next group's newsprint. Give each group five minutes to review the other group's work and ask questions. Then, ask teams to move clockwise to the next group's work. Continue this process until each group returns to its own newsprint.

6. Use either examples from your own life or from the vignette "Applying Theory to Practice A" on page 1-9 in Chapter 1 to illustrate the fact that individuals move between stages depending on situations and contexts.

7. Ask participants to think of a colleague, beginning teacher, or intern with whom they have worked. Have them think of a time when that person demonstrated characteristics that were different from his or her usual developmental level. Ask participants, individually, to record on a blank sheet of paper what might have contributed to this behavioral shift.

8. Ask one or two participants to talk about the shift they observed in their colleague's developmental level and the factors that contributed to this shift.

9. Share and discuss the teacher behaviors for Loevinger's developmental stages as presented in the handout "Teacher Stage Characteristics."

Time Required: 120 minutes

FIGURE 1.2 THEORISTS' VIEWS ON THE STAGES OF MORAL AND EGO DEVELOPMENT

Theorist	Key Area of Devel-opment	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Kohlberg	Moral	5	**Pre-conventional level** **Stage 1:** Self-centered orientation **Stage 2:** Aware of other individual's points of view **Conventional level** **Stage 3:** Member of group perspective, not yet society's perspective **Stage 4:** Member of society or system perspective **Post-conven tional level** **Stage 5:** Able to distinguish between moral and legal point of view, but finds it difficult to define a moral perspective independent of perspective behind legal rights. or Understands and basically accepts society's rules, but acceptance is based on formulating and accepting general moral principles that underlie them.	Development of moral thinkers evolves over life cycle and can be traced to complex but definable structures. Stages are hierarchically linked -- an individual must pass through each stage to reach the next. Moral development should be intentionally stimulated.
Gilligan	Moral	3	**Level 1:** Individual's primary concern is for one's own survival in the face of powerlessness. **Level 2:** Individual seeks goodness in caring for others and values self-sacrifice as the highest virtue. **Level 3:** Individual recognizes oneself as a legitimate object of care, and this insight becomes the framework for an ethic of care.	Two moral voices can be traced in describing problems involving moral conflict and choice: the voice of justice (equality) or the voice of care (attachment or connection). Although individuals have access to both voices, they tend to focus their attention on problems of unfairness or disconnection. The two approaches constitute different ways of organizing a problem that leads to different reasoning strategies and different ways of thinking about what is happening and what to do. Moral orientation is associated with the sex of the reasoner (females focus on care, males focus on justice), the problem being solved, and the social class of the individual. Moral maturity entails an ability to see in at least two ways and speak in at least two languages -- those of care and justice.

Sources: See page 1-91.

FIGURE 1.2 THEORISTS' VIEWS ON THE STAGES OF MORAL AND EGO DEVELOPMENT (continued)

Theorist	Key Area of Development	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Loevinger	Ego	7	**Self-protective stage:** Persons at this level tend to blame others, circumstances, or parts of themselves for which they feel no responsibility. They are concerned with controlling and being controlled. **Conformist stage:** Persons at this level are preoccupied with compliance to external rules; acceptance and approval are vitally important. **Conscientious-conformist stage:** Persons at this level have a growing awareness of self, particularly of one's inner feelings. **Conscientious stage:** Persons at this level can be highly critical of themselves. Interpersonal communications are especially valued. Their sensitivity to others deepens. They are more reflective than in earlier stages, alert to choices, motivated to achieve goals, concerned with living up to ideals, and interested in self-improvement. **Individualistic stage:** Persons at this level are more tolerant of themselves and others due to recognition of individual differences and complexities. Interpersonal relationships become deeper and more intense. **Autonomous stage:** Persons at this level recognize other people's need for autonomy. They have a high tolerance for ambiguity, accept the existence of inner conflict, and concern themselves with social problems beyond their own needs and experiences. **Integrated stage:** Persons at this stage transcend conflicts and polarities. They have developed a firm sense of identity and have high respect for themselves and others.	The essence of ego is striving for meaning. Ego is a process that forms a natural barrier to change and is social in origin (i.e., interpersonal relationships are key to development). Individuals show evidence of functioning on different levels. No stage is necessarily better or more adequate than another.

FIGURE 1.2 THEORISTS' VIEWS ON THE STAGES OF MORAL AND EGO DEVELOPMENT (continued)

Theorist	Key Area of Devel-opment	No. of Stages	Stages of Adult Development	Key Thoughts about Stages of Adult Development
Kegan	Ego	5	**Imperial balance, stage 2:** Persons at this stage orient to themselves and the world through their own needs; they do not have a shared reality. **Interpersonal balance, stage 3:** Persons at this stage are inextricably tied to others for a sense of themselves; they avoid conflict and seek approval. **Institutional balance, stage 4:** Persons at this stage can relate to multiple others and tolerate multiple views; their sense of self control is a strength; personal achievements, competence, and responsibility are prominent; alternative strategies and mutual communication are prized. **Interindividual balance, stage 5:** Person's individuality and interdependence are prominent; persons at this level have a high degree of autonomy and capacity for interdependence.	Growth unfolds through alternating periods of stability, instability, and temporary rebalance. Emphasis is on meaning, not just traits and behaviors, that lie beneath behaviors. Opportunities and limits exist at every developmental point. Pain and exhilaration accompany transition as something is lost, but something is also gained.

Sources: Levine, Op. Cit., 1-4: 86-94.

Kohlberg, Op. Cit., 1-7.

Gilligan, Ward, and Taylor, Op. Cit., 1-7.

Lieberman and Miller, Op. Cit., 1-7.

TEACHER STAGE CHARACTERISTICS

Teacher Behaviors of Self-Protective Stage

- Appears shy, reticent, hesitant
- Is unwilling to take advice
- Doesn't ask for help
- Doesn't voice professional opinion
- Accepts any suggestions unquestioningly
- Displays extreme anxiety, particularly when the unexpected occurs
- Exhibits a limited repertoire of behavior
- Has few responses to situations
- Continually asks for advice and/or affirmation on performance in classroom
- Does not share ideas for lessons
- Is unwilling to let others observe
- Refers classroom "challenges" to principal excessively
- Gets people to do unpleasant things for him or her; flatters
- Enforces classroom discipline through cajoling and bargaining rather than clearly defined and consistently enforced expectations

Teacher Behaviors of Conformist Stage

- Believes "it's not important unless the principal says so"
- Exhibits devotion to rules and "the book"
- Takes limited risks in teaching
- Follows the textbook manuals to a great extent
- Accepts ideas only from perceived "experts" or people who have authority over him or her
- Tends to accept ideas from others more rapidly than his or her own
- Conforms with the majority in most cases
- Tends to be overly critical of self and/or others

Source: Oja, Op. Cit., 1-85.

Teacher Behaviors of Conscientious Stage

- Seeks professional growth opportunities
- Shares new knowledge with colleagues
- Follows through on and completes professional assignments once undertaken
- Wants to know how students perform (what they know/have learned) in broader context than classroom or school
- Seeks and listens to feedback (from parents, students, colleagues, etc.)
- Joins professional organizations, subscribes to journals
- Incorporates research findings (action or other) and information on good practice into his or her curriculum and teaching
- Has a clear idea of which "rules" are the most important; weeds out non-essentials
- Values and engages in long-range planning (classroom and school instructional goals, professional directions)
- Shows interest in exploring new structures and roles (for example, team teaching, mentoring)
- Is willing to share with and listen to others (students, teachers, principal)
- Develops and offers lessons that are well planned so they flow smoothly; ensures orderly environments

Teacher Behaviors of Autonomous Stage

- Sees others (students, colleagues) as whole persons, not just role-defined
- Helps others "grow"; not disparaging, but supportive of others "behind" him or her
- Takes on student teachers; interested in mentoring
- Shows interest in how students arrive at conclusions, answers; not necessarily just interested in "right" answer
- Able to recognize and use "teachable moments"
- Has a good sense of classroom climate, relationships, and transactions among students at any point in time; is sensitive to subtle changes; and responds in the moment
- Begins to gain perspective on his or her place in the profession as a whole
- Has achieved personal/professional balance
- Respects and appreciates differences brought by students, colleagues, and others in wider society

ACTIVITY 1-7

TEACHER STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT: MATCHING SUPPORTS AND CHALLENGES

Purpose(s): To identify appropriate supports and challenges for Loevinger's stages of ego development

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Teacher Stage Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges," "Case Study," and "Case Study Worksheet: Teacher Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges" for each participant; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity builds on Activities 1-5 and 1-6 and, for the most part, is based on Loevinger's work on ego development. Along with Activity 1-8, it addresses the importance of understanding and expecting that adults will demonstrate behaviors that indicate a developmental shift. Many factors will contribute to a change in one's usual developmental frame of reference. It is important to stress that when such behavioral shifts are understood, mentors are better able to effectively respond to new teachers and other colleagues.

Oja discusses the need for supports that match an individual's routine levels of response and challenges that are slightly more complex and demanding. The balance between support and challenge promotes teacher growth. It is important to emphasize the interdependence of supports and challenges in Step 2.

For more specific information on developmental matches and mismatches, consult pages 50-57 in the chapter "Adult Development: Insights on Staff Development" (Oja 1991) in *Staff Development for Education in the '90s: New Demands, New Realities, and New Perspectives*; pages 71-77 in the article "Experienced Teachers: Agents for Revitalization and Renewal as Mentors and Teacher Educators" (Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall 1987); or page 17 in the article "A Collaborative Approach for Mentor Training: A Working Model" (Thies-Sprinthall 1986).

You may want to use journal entries of new teachers in your district in addition to or in place of the case study provided. You might also find it helpful to develop videotaped role plays of teachers working with students in their classrooms or participating in conferences.

Let participants know that Step 6 is in preparation for Activity 1-8.

Process/Steps:

1. Briefly recall the teacher characteristics and developmental stages discussed in Activities 1-5 and 1-6.

Source: Oja, Op. Cit., 1-85.

2. Have participants familiarize themselves with the handout "Teacher Stage Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges." Allow 5-10 minutes for participants' review (see Trainer's Notes about Step 2).

3. Ask participants to form small groups of four to six. Distribute the handouts "Case Study" and "Case Study Worksheet: Teacher Stage Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges" to all participants.

4. Have participants individually read the case study. Then, have them, as a group, complete the handout, indicating the most probable stage of teacher development, an appropriate support, and an appropriate challenge.

5. Have participants share their comments with the larger group.

6. Link this activity with upcoming Activity 1-8 by means of a homework exercise. Have participants recall the colleague they thought about or discussed in Activity 1-6 and think about what supports and challenges would be appropriate for that individual.

Time Required: 80-90 minutes

Teacher Stage Characteristics	Appropriate Supports	Appropriate Challenges
Teacher Behaviors of Self-Protective Stage		
Appears shy, reticent, hesitant	Demonstrate trust, mutual respect	Role playing
Is unwilling to take advice	Set short-term goals	Journals
Doesn't ask for help	Interact often	Values activities
Doesn't voice professional opinion	Model/guide openness	Constructive feedback
Accepts any suggestions unquestioningly		Social activities
Displays extreme anxiety, particularly when the unexpected occurs		
Exhibits a limited repertoire of behavior		
Has few responses to situations		
Continually asks for advice and/or affirmation on performance in classroom		
Does not share ideas for lessons		
Is unwilling to let others observe		
Refers classroom "challenges" to principal excessively		
Gets people to do unpleasant things for him or her; flatters		
Enforces classroom discipline through cajoling and bargaining rather than clearly defined and consistently enforced expectations		

Source: Leiberman and Miller, Op. Cit., 1-7: 54.

Teacher Stage Characteristics	Appropriate Supports	Appropriate Challenges
Teacher Behaviors of Conformist Stage		
Believes "it's not important unless the principal says so" Exhibits devotion to rules and "the book" Takes limited risks in teaching Follows the textbook manuals to a great extent Accepts ideas only from perceived "experts" or people who have authority over him or her Tends to accept ideas from others more rapidly than his or her own Conforms with the majority in most cases Tends to be overly critical of self and/or others	Focus observations Share many options Encourage visits and workshop attendance Interact socially	Reflection exercises Role playing Assertiveness training Problem-solving projects Graduate courses
Teacher Behaviors of Conscientious Stage		
Seeks professional growth opportunities Shares new knowledge with colleagues Follows through on and completes professional assignments once undertaken Wants to know how students perform (what they know/have learned) in broader context than classroom or school Seeks and listens to feedback (from parents, students, colleagues, etc.) Joins professional organizations, subscribes to journals	Facilitate sharing of district resources Structure new roles Videotape performance Model empathic behavior	Peer supervision Conflict resolution training Intern/aide supervision Action research projects Curriculum development

Teacher Stage Characteristics	Appropriate Supports	Appropriate Challenges
Teacher Behaviors of Conscientious Stage (continued)		
Incorporates research findings (action or other) and information on good practice into his or her curriculum and teaching		
Has a clear idea of which "rules" are the most important; weeds out nonessentials		
Values and engages in long-range planning (classroom and school instructional goals, professional directions)		
Shows interest in exploring new structures and roles (for example, team teaching, mentoring)		
Is willing to share with and listen to others (students, teachers, principal)		
Develops and offers lessons that are well planned so they flow smoothly; ensures orderly environments		
Teacher Behaviors of Autonomous Stage		
Sees others (students, colleagues) as whole persons, not just role-defined	Provide many options for growth	Mentoring
Helps others "grow"; not disparaging, but supportive of others "behind" him or her	Develop flextime options	Assuming leadership/power roles
Takes on student teachers; interested in mentoring	Facilitate networking	Creating new programs and policies
Shows interest in how students arrive at conclusions, answers; not necessarily just interested in "right" answer	Encourage self-growth	Group supervision
	Differentiate roles	
Able to recognize and use "teachable moments"	Share power	Becoming a change agent

Teacher Stage Characteristics	Appropriate Supports	Appropriate Challenges
Teacher Behaviors of Autonomous Stage (continued) Has a good sense of classroom climate, relationships, and transactions among students at any point in time; is sensitive to subtle changes; and responds in the moment Begins to gain perspective on his or her place in the profession as a whole Has achieved personal/professional balance Respects and appreciates differences brought by students, colleagues, and others in wider society		

CASE STUDY

I was assigned to work as a mentor with three new teachers at another school site. Jim was one of these new teachers.

With some trepidation, I began my first day. After introductions by the principal, I began by spending the entire day observing in the three rooms, chatting, asking questions, finding out needs, and making notes on what I perceived as problem areas.

In Jim's room, I noticed serious control problems, difficulties during lessons in getting the children's attention and monitoring activities and independent work. About midway through the first day, I couldn't help but make a suggestion or two about the arrangement of furniture, which I felt contributed greatly to this problem. There was a moat between the teacher and the class, and the students' desks were arranged in closed, wall-like formations around the back of the room.

I must not have handled this well because Jim countered immediately with resistance. "I've moved the desks four times already." "I've already tried that." "I've tried this, and it didn't work." His responses indicated that he didn't want any input here. So we discussed time on task, which we had agreed would be the focus of my observation, and went on to other areas of need.

Before leaving that day, I gave him the room plan I had made with no discussion other than what the symbols meant. He still wasn't at all interested in changing any furniture around. I promised to bring in some requested materials and see him the following day. I felt I had failed disastrously in communicating the importance of room arrangement in good classroom management.

The next day Jim and I worked on groupings, gathered materials for reading and English as a Second Language, and discussed other needs. We also talked over lunch about some of the personal problems he was having, namely too much to do and too little time. No mention was made by either of us about room arrangement, but he was still having the same or even worse problems with control during his lessons and independent work time. Jim did begin noticing the time-off-task behavior of many of his students. I had not planned to return for three days and was a little worried about the follow-up to our discussions.

Source: Adapted with permission of Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development from *The Mentor Teacher Casebook* by Judith Shulman and Joel A. Colbert, eds. (c) 1987, 32.

CASE STUDY WORKSHEET: TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS, APPROPRIATE SUPPORTS, APPROPRIATE CHALLENGES

1. According to the teacher's characteristics, based on the observable behaviors described in the case study, what is the most probable stage of development that has been reached?

2. What is an appropriate support to Jim at that stage of development?

3. What is an appropriate challenge to help Jim to develop further?

ACTIVITY 1-8

DEVELOPING AN ACTION PLAN TO LINK SUPPORTS AND CHALLENGES TO IDENTIFIED TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS

Purpose(s):	To develop possible ways to support new teachers and colleagues
Materials:	Enough copies of the handout "Teacher Stage Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges" (on pages 1-97 through 1-100) for each participant
Trainer's Notes:	This activity builds on Activities 1-5, 1-6, and 1-7. Step 2 may be done in pairs.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the handout "Teacher Stage Characteristics, Appropriate Supports, Appropriate Challenges," asking participants to reflect upon the colleague they thought about in Activity 1-6.

2. Ask participants, who have identified colleagues who share the same developmental level, to form small groups of four to six.

3. In these small groups, ask participants to generate additional support and challenges for individuals at that developmental stage.

4. Have participants share and discuss their recommendations with the larger group.

5. Have participants incorporate useful suggestions and develop an action plan with a sequence of steps to provide appropriate supports and challenges for the new teacher with whom they are working.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

ACTIVITY 1-9

REFLECTION -- UNDERSTANDING TECHNICAL AND CRITICAL REFLECTION

Purpose(s): To understand the differences between technical and critical reflection, encourage participants to go beyond technical reflection to develop a more rational perspective on teaching and learning, and recognize the importance of critical reflection

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Examples of Technical and Critical Reflection" for each participant, newsprint, easel, markers, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: While technical reflection may be regarded as "checking out prior learning to confirm if we have correctly proceeded to solve problems," critical reflection involves challenging our established and habitual patterns of expectations, perspectives, or beliefs that we bring to bear on our environment, to make sense of our "encounters with the world, others, and ourselves." Critical reflection refers to "challenging the validity of presuppositions in prior learning" (Mezirow and Associates 1990, 12).

You should be familiar with, and you might encourage participants to read, pages 1-19 to 1-32 in Chapter 1. (Additional material on technical and critical reflection can be found on pages 3-24 to 3-26 in Chapter 3.) It might also be helpful to review Zeichner's article "Reflecting on Reflection" on pages 15-21 in the Spring 1989 issue of *Colloquy* 2, published by the National Center for Research in Teacher Education.

As an option, you might wish to remove the headings and rearrange the examples in the handout. Then, participants can determine which are examples of technical reflection, which are examples of critical reflection, and what their rationale is for each choice.

Participants in this activity should be cautioned to make no value judgments regarding either of these concepts (technical or critical reflection). They are both useful, but different, ways of knowing. They both become part of a teacher's repertoire at appropriate points in his or her development.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form small groups of four or five. Have each group select a reporter. Ask participants to brainstorm words or phrases they think describe technical and critical reflection. Let each group know that they will be asked to share three to five examples for each form of reflection.
2. Ask each group to report out and record responses on newsprint.
3. Present participants with the handout "Examples of Technical and Critical Reflection" and give them time to read it.

4. Ask participants to think about a situation in their classroom that was difficult in some way. Have them briefly describe in writing how they responded to the situation and whether their response was one of technical or critical reflection.

5. Share an illustrative example from your experience. Identify which form of reflection it demonstrates and provide an example of what the other form of reflection might have looked like.

6. Ask participants to form pairs and share their reflections in a similar manner.

7. In the whole group, ask participants to share comments about their reflections.

8. Remind participants that both forms of reflection are valuable. Depending upon the circumstance, one form of reflection may be more beneficial than the other. The scenarios found on pages 3-24 to 3-26 in Chapter 3 may be helpful in illustrating this point.

Time Required: 70-90 minutes

EXAMPLES OF TECHNICAL AND CRITICAL REFLECTION

Technical Reflection	Critical Reflection
Max Greenbaum, an eighth grade science teacher at Memorial Middle School, believed that moving Sam's seat closer to him would afford Sam less distraction from his seatmates.	Max Greenbaum wants to lessen distractions for Sam, and thinks of the option of moving the child's seat closer to him. Then, he considered Sam's friendships with his seatmates. Max knows that Sam has always had difficulty making friends. Max realized that he must evaluate what is most critical to Sam's well-being right now, and continue to explore other options to "maximize" Sam's attentiveness.
Jessica Cronin has long believed, based on previous observations and experience, that children who enter school from a socially or culturally deprived background, as hard as they try, will never be able to perform as well scholastically as children who come from the same middle-class background that she experienced growing up. Due to a lack of life experience, she felt that she must teach them differently and with lower expectations.	Jessica, however, had a surprising confrontation with Ira Johnson, who vehemently disagrees with her point of view. In a recent conversation, Ira intimated that Jessica is "racist." He went on to tell of his experience in which a group of such children in his class, when given extra time to learn a given amount of material, did learn as much as well. Jessica was incensed and shocked at being viewed as racist. After some time had passed, she began to question her beliefs. She thought that maybe it was okay to spend different amounts of instructional time for different children in her class for given portions of material.
Jonathan Flaherty introduces a social studies unit, has a quiz the following day, and is disappointed with the class's performance on the quiz. Jonathan looks back on the lesson to determine which components of the presentation of the material were weak. He resolves to discuss this with Juan Ramirez, a colleague whose instruction in social studies he admires.	Following his students' "poor" performance on a social studies quiz, Jonathan Flaherty reviewed the material presented prior to the quiz and began to think about what aspects of the presentation were weak. Upon reviewing this information with Juan Ramirez, a colleague he admires, Juan asked, • "Was there anything different about how you presented the new material to this class?" • "Was this quiz any different in format or style from other quizzes you've given?" After pondering this for a moment, Jonathan replied, "The quiz was typical of most quizzes I give. There were some factual statements to identify, a written essay, and some open-ended questions. You know, I think how I presented the material is the problem. I was in a hurry to get through the material, so I presented it in a lecture. This group of students is very familiar with cooperative-learning activities as part of any new information or material introduced to them. I took their process time away."

ACTIVITY 1-10

MAKING RESEARCH REAL

Purpose(s): To introduce the concept of action research, explore its many uses, identify the difference between traditional and action research, and acknowledge specific ways of using action research as mentors work with new teachers

Materials: Newsprint, easel, markers, pencils or pens, and enough copies of the handout "Questions for Discussion on Action Research" and the following articles for each participant:

> "Collaborative Research: Working With, Not Working On . . ." by Ann Lieberman. February 1986. In *Educational Leadership* 43 (5): 28-32.
>
> "Collaborative Action Research." In *Collaborative Action Research: A Developmental Approach* by Sharon Nodie Oja and Lisa Smulyan. (Philadelphia: The Falmer Press, 1989), 1-25.
>
> "What Project LEARN Reveals about Collaborative Action Research" by Richard Sagor. March 1991. In *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 6-10.
>
> "Speaking of Action Research" by John Watkins. (Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, 1992.)
>
> "Action Research: A Field Perspective" by Patricia Wood. April 1988. A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Trainer's Notes: It is important to place action research as a part of staff development into perspective for participants. Sharing the following ideas may help to provide that frame of reference:

- Most staff development in-service is not explicitly connected to the professional and personal growth and development of individual teachers. Action research makes that connection explicit.
- Many staff development workshops and seminars talk about "what research says." Action research talks about what teachers as researchers say.
- Action research supports the teacher as researcher, i.e., he or she identifies specific challenges within his or her classroom and follows this up with an ongoing four-step cycle of research: plan, act, reflect, and revise. This continual spiral of action research can be applied in several ways as mentors work with new teachers. As participants in action research, mentors and new teachers grow and develop together.

This activity is designed to increase the mentor's understanding and knowledge of action research, as well as to provide some concrete ways of utilizing action research in working with new teachers.

Please refer to the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 1-C on page 1-171. Deviations from the general directions are noted below.

So that the participants will be able to refer to the focus questions while they read, you may wish to write them on newsprint, an overhead, or on a separate piece of paper that can be distributed to each participant.

You might find it helpful to share the articles with participants in advance. This will allow for more thoughtful reading and enable more time for sharing in expert groups.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of this jigsaw activity -- to provide a structured opportunity to read, think, and talk about action research. It may prove helpful to participants if you briefly explain, in a sentence or two, what each article explores as well as the style of writing, i.e., some are more concrete, others more abstract. This may assist participants in selecting which article or chapter they wish to read.

2. Form home groups of five. Have each member of the home group choose or assign one of the articles. As they read or review the articles previously read, ask them to answer the following questions:

    - What are the major themes of your article?
    - What are the implications of these themes for you personally?
    - What are the implications of these themes for your mentoring projects?

3. Then, form homogeneous or expert groups. These participants have all read the same article. Have them discuss and record on newsprint their responses to the questions identified in Step 2.

4. Have participants return to their home groups. Have experts share one major theme, one implication for them, and one implication to their mentoring project from their article.

5. Distribute one copy of the handout "Questions for Discussion on Action Research" to each participant.

6. Ask each participant to briefly respond in writing to the questions on the handout (allow 3-5 minutes). Following the writing exercise, ask participants to share their responses with others in their home group.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION ON ACTION RESEARCH

1. What are the questions you may have about teaching and learning in your classroom?

2. How might you investigate any of those questions in your classroom?

3. Who else, including new teachers, might be interested in this question and could be included in this investigative process?

ACTIVITY 1-11

KEEPING A JOURNAL FOR COLLEGIAL DIALOGUE

Purpose(s): To provide participants with an opportunity to utilize the process of writing as one way of reflecting on their teaching practice

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Questions to Promote Reflection" and "Affirmations to Support Reflection" for each participant, journal, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: It is important to clarify that journal writing is not intended to be an evaluation tool. However, it is an excellent vehicle to encourage collegial dialogue.

Mentors and new teachers could benefit greatly from engaging in journal dialogue. Yet, there remains a dangerous potential to overwhelm both mentors and new teachers alike if we assume that all teachers embrace the opportunity to communicate in written form. If journals are to be used, it is essential to develop a nonthreatening definition of what a journal is as well as what journal dialogues can accomplish. Journal entries can be as simple as a brief thought written in a lesson plan book or as lengthy as needed to get a thought or question down on paper. An entry could be a reaction by a teacher to something he or she did in the classroom or a response to something someone else wrote.

Before a journal can be used for dialogue, a level of trust needs to be established between the new teacher and the mentor. Ground rules need to be discussed. Two questions -- Who gets to read this? and What do you do with this information? -- need to be addressed from the outset, as the answers may have a direct relationship to what is shared in that journal. Finally, the ever-present issue of time is one that is often used as reason not to do this "journal writing stuff." Once again, an entry may be a brief question or comment that may have escaped further dialogue had it not been written down.

In ideal situations, mentors and new teachers are teaching in the same building. However, schools often present less than ideal situations. Of those mentor/new teacher teams who find themselves teaching in different buildings, the use of the dual-entry journal can help to bridge that geographical gap.

Process/Steps:

1. Select an important issue or problem that was "triggered" by something in the classroom this past week. (Emphasis is on the importance to the teacher.) Use the following directions:
    - Using your journal, write about something important to you that needs expanding, or explore something that is helping you get what you want.
    - Look for connections or conflicts within your knowledge base; techniques and strategies; and goals, values, beliefs, and biases.

- Affirm yourself for looking at something difficult (for example, your part in things that are not going well), for helping something to go well, and for making progress in solving problems or changing/growing.
- Work to develop your own professional views and "voice," based on research, observation, experience, your beliefs, goals, etc.

2. Ask questions which can prompt reflection, referring to the handout "Questions to Promote Reflection."
3. Allow participants to write for 30 minutes.
4. Allow participants to discuss this writing experience.
5. Ask participants to form small groups of four or five.
6. Give each participant a copy of the handout "Affirmations to Support Reflections." Ask them to discuss in small groups how these affirmations might be used to assist new teachers in reflecting on their practice. Have each group identify a reporter.
7. Ask the reporter from each group to share three key points from each group's discussion.

Time Required: 60 minutes

QUESTIONS TO PROMOTE REFLECTION

- Can you talk more about that?
- Why do you think that happened?
- What evidence do you have about that?
- What do you need?
- What have you tried before?
- Why did/didn't it work?
- What does this remind you of?
- What if it happened this way?
- How else could you approach that?
- What do you want to happen?
- How could you do that?
- When is the concern most pronounced?

Source: Canning, Op. Cit., 1-28.

AFFIRMATIONS TO SUPPORT REFLECTION

- You can find a way that works for you when you are ready.
- You can change if you want to.
- You can grow at your own pace.
- You can know what you need and ask for help.
- You can experiment and explore. I will help you.
- You can feel your feelings.
- Your needs and reflections are important.
- I like talking to you like this.

Source: Canning, Op. Cit., 1-28.

ACTIVITY 1-12

CHANGE BEGINS WITH EACH OF US

Purpose(s):	To familiarize participants with the nature of change around us and to consider how we all deal with it personally
Materials: '	Enough copies of the handout "Stages of Change" (Figure 1.10) for each participant, journal, newsprint, easels, markers, blank paper, and pencils or pens
Trainer's Notes:	This activity is designed to demonstrate that we all know more about the change process than we realize. Change occurs naturally. Resistance to change and efforts to maintain the status quo are natural reactions that can be anticipated. Three stages of change have been projected by many theorists (see Figure 1.10). Journal writers can reflect on the process of change in their professional lives, using these templates. If participants have already experienced Activity 1-11, you may refer them back to the handout "Questions to Promote Reflection" on page 1-115.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the handout "Stages of Change" (Figure 1.10) with the participants in a large group. Examine the similarities of the theorists across each of the three stages.

2. Using blank paper, ask participants to individually make a list of three major personal changes that they have undergone in the last year (for example, a change in a relationship; a new job, car, home, apartment, pet, or baby; a new routine or pattern like eating, exercise, or hobby; physical changes in weight, appearance, or health).

3. Have participants choose one example of a personal change that influenced their professional practice and write about it in their journals. (The more powerful an example each dares to select, the more worthwhile the activity.) Ask the participants to describe the changes that took place through the three stages of change, to become aware of their emotional state at each level in the change process, and to note where they are now in the progression.

4. Ask participants to share their journal entries with one other person. Have pairs look for common themes in their anecdotes.

5. In the large group, ask participants to match their common themes with each stage of the change process and record them on newsprint.

   STAGE 1: Feelings of disenchantment, loss, disorientation, disengagement — what can precipitate this stage?

   STAGE 2: Feelings of disinterestedness, ambiguity, transition, ritualized routines — what can you do to help yourself through this stage?

   STAGE 3: Feelings of stabilization, excitement, a new beginning — what behavior changed before your sense of self changed?

6. Ask participants to speculate on what the implications from this activity might be for mentoring. List them on newsprint.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

FIGURE 1.10 STAGES OF CHANGE

Stage	I	II	III
Lewin (1958)	unfreezing	moving	refreezing
Van Gennep (1960)	separation	transition	incorporation
Rogers (1962)	awareness interest	evaluation trial	adoption
Havelock (1973)	- building a relationship - diagnosing the problem - acquiring relevant resources	- choosing the solution - gaining acceptance	- stabilizing - self-renewing
Lippitt (1973)	- diagnosing the problem - assessing the motivation and capacity to change - assessing change agent's motivation and resources	- selecting progressive change objectives - choosing the appropriate role for the change agent	- maintaining the change - terminating the helping relationship
Bridges (1980)	endings - immobilization - denial - depression, anger	neutral zone - letting go - testing - searching for meaning	beginnings - internalization - new beginnings
Miles (1983)	initiation - linked to high-profile need - clear model of implementation - one or more strong advocates - active initiation	implementation - coordination - shared control - pressure and support - ongoing technical assistance	institutionalization - embedding - links to other areas - wide-spreading - removal of competing priority - continuing assistance

ACTIVITY 1-13

OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Purpose(s): To identify mentors' or new teachers' concerns in the mentoring relationship

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Questions to Promote Reflection" (see Activity 1-11, page 1-115) for each participant, overhead "Questions to Promote Reflection," overhead projector and screen, journal, newsprint, easel, markers, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: You should underscore to participants that there are no right or wrong responses to these open-ended questions. This activity is designed to promote collegial dialogue among mentors and new teachers based upon their personal experiences. Through the sharing of written reflections, solutions to particular concerns may become more readily identifiable.

Some examples for insertions for the blank in Step 1 include, "When you think about . . .

- teaching your first year,
- being a mentor for the first time,

. . . what are your concerns?"

You may find that alternative insertions would better serve the needs of your participants.

Use the handout "Questions to Promote Reflection" as a guide in presenting this activity. A copy of this handout should be distributed to each participant.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to consider the question "When you think about ____________, what are your concerns?" For 10 minutes, have the group verbally share their thoughts (which may be jotted down on newsprint). Review the overhead "Questions to Promote Reflection" as a guide to developing their ideas.
2. Have participants write these concerns and at least two possible solutions in their journals.
3. Have participants exchange their journal entries with another person. Have each participant read the other's concerns and write reflective comments using the handout "Questions to Promote Reflection."
4. When pairs are ready, have them begin guiding each other to generate additional "solutions" to their concerns.
5. Ask participants to evaluate the process.

Time Required: 80 minutes

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QUESTIONS TO PROMOTE REFLECTION

- Can you talk more about that?
- Why do you think that happened?
- What evidence do you have about that?
- What do you need?
- What have you tried before?
- Why did/didn't it work?
- What does this remind you of?
- What if it happened this way?
- How else could you approach that?
- What do you want to happen?
- How could you do that?
- When is the concern most pronounced?

Source: Canning, Op. Cit., 1-28.

ACTIVITY 1-14

STAGES OF CONCERN ABOUT MENTORING

Purpose(s): To identify mentors' concerns about their new role and to consider how new teachers' concerns about the teaching role can be identified and addressed

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Vignette" for each participant, overhead "Stages of Concern about the Innovation" (Figure 1.11), overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easel, markers, tape, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity has a dual purpose for mentors: first, to identify their own concerns and, second, to learn how to use Stages of Concern to identify and address new teachers' concerns. It will be most revealing if participants have no prior information about Stages of Concern. Since Stages of Concern (CBAM) flesh out the stages of change (Figure 1.11), the most important steps in this activity are Step 2 (introduction to the concept), Step 7 (identification of new teachers' needs), and Step 8 (generation of mentoring strategies for interactions at the different stages).

Steps 4, 5, and 6 are important connectives that participants need in order to identify their own concerns as mentors. (If more time is available, suggestions are made for sharing and discussion.) Steps 7, 8, and 9 could address mentors' stages of concern through analysis of new teacher concerns and appropriate mentoring responses.

Process/Steps:

1. If participants previously did Activity 1-13, "Open-Ended Questions," recall for them their own suggestions for resolving concerns. Ask them to list their concerns about the new mentoring role on a piece of paper and then have them put it aside.

2. Introduce the overhead "Stages of Concern about the Innovation." Explain and discuss each of its stages. Allow for questions and comments.

3. Ask participants to form small groups of four to six. Pass out the handout "Vignette" from the introduction to this guide. Ask them to read it and collaboratively identify the stages of concern about the mentoring role in each paragraph. Explain that combinations of stages in a single thought are conceivable.

4. Ask the large group for comments about how difficult or how easy the task was and if it helped clarify the Stages of Concern. (This can be expanded by having them share their small-group findings, taking turns, etc.)

5. Ask individuals to review and share their own concerns about mentoring from Step 1. A brief discussion should demonstrate that we all have differing concerns about new things in our lives and that we can plot a progression of those concerns.

Note: For more in-depth information on the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), see resource section.

6. Ask participants to predict how their concerns might change over the first year or two of being a mentor.

7. Then, ask the small groups to reassemble to focus on the concerns of beginning teachers and to identify the stage(s) of those concerns. Have each group report out on newsprint concerns of new teachers at each stage. Post newsprint around the room for all to see.

8. Conclude with a discussion of how mentors might interact with new teachers at each Stage of Concern. Annotate the "new teacher concerns" newsprint with suggested "mentor interactions" (to be produced in print form for distribution to participants at a later session).

9. Finally, leave participants to ponder this question:

    Given strategies to deal with new teachers' Stages of Concern, does this change the mentors' level of concern about mentoring?

Time Required: 90 minutes

— Vignette —

Informational meeting for all those interested in applying for the role of MENTOR TEACHER in the district's new Beginning Teacher Support Program . . .

The words in the announcement precipitate a flood of thought and feeling about this career I chose 11 years ago. My first reaction is -- what took so long? I am a good teacher: I have a vast repertoire of skills that I use each year to put together a dynamic program around the learning needs of my students. I continually think about what I do in an effort to get better. I have a good rapport with my students, colleagues, parents, and others in the community. I enjoy the role of being an advocate for the kids and the school.

But it wasn't always this way. There have been many times when I doubted myself and wondered if I would ever become a competent teacher. Most of that shakiness happened that first year in the classroom. There were many days when I wanted to quit: the discipline problems, the endless hours of planning, the piles of paperwork, the fear of those administrative evaluations, the concerns of parents, and the loneliness of just me and the kids. It was all overwhelming! I remember how I felt I had to prove myself and how difficult it was to ask for help.

If it were not for the help of a few people, I would not be teaching today. Mr. Rafferty, next door, helped show me the ropes -- how the school expected things to operate and what I needed to do for the office. He even let his presence be known a few times to a couple of my tougher students. I didn't want him to know I was struggling, but I was always assured that he was next door if I needed him. The principal, Mr. Alvarez, would offer suggestions after his observations -- and they were usually good ones. However, I was always so uptight about the evaluative role he played that I couldn't tell him how difficult it was for me. I would often call or stop to see Valerie, my friend from college. She and I were a couple of the lucky ones in our graduating class who got teaching positions in the area. We would do the best we could to help each other, but much of it was commiserating over how hard it was. And then, in March, when she told me she was going to quit and take a job the following year in her father's business, I was devastated. If someone as talented and committed as she had seemed to be couldn't make it, what was I doing in this role? I've since seen many enthusiastic, capable young teachers become disillusioned and leave the profession.

I think that first call I reluctantly made to Dr. Washburn at the university was a lifesaving step. She seemed to understand my plight and listened patiently to my problems. She lamented the fact that her schedule didn't allow her more than a couple of visits. However, those two visits and her subsequent suggestions made a world of difference. Just being reassured that the first year was the toughest somehow helped me to hang on. I made so many mistakes and resorted to so many strategies that I told myself I would never use.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A new teacher today has many more complex issues to deal with than when I became a teacher. We have an increasingly diverse student population. We're just beginning to learn how to meet the needs of kids from a variety of cultures. And the continuing challenge of integrating students with special needs into our classrooms remains difficult. These are concerns of all teachers, rookies and veterans. Will a mentoring program help us deal with those concerns?

All of us will have to approach these changes together. My experience has shown me that changes are tough to make in schools. Change meets resistance from individuals and from the system itself. I wonder what kind of thinking has gone into preparing for the changes that will arise from a Beginning Teacher Support Program.

So, a Beginning Teacher Support Program? If it's done right, it could make such a difference! We could help those bright, idealistic, new teachers succeed with their progressive ideas sooner and do more than just survive that first year. We could offer them encouragement, understanding, and feedback that would help them feel as if they belonged to a wonderful profession. We could allow their fresh perspective to renew our commitment to teaching. As it now stands, we give them the toughest teaching assignments and stand back to watch them sink or swim. We lose a lot when we lose a new teacher. We can do better! Teaching is a people profession. We should bring out the best in others.

I wonder if I have what it takes to become a mentor for new teachers. I've certainly received some recognition for my teaching abilities. My colleagues seek me out once in awhile for suggestions and ideas around units they're working on. I've enjoyed the cooperating teacher role that I've assumed for a few student teachers. I've always enjoyed welcoming new teachers to our school, and informally I've made myself available to them. Jean, one of my current team members, is still thanking me for the little things she claims I did for her when she first came here. The invitation last semester to lead a workshop team on creative classroom discipline in the neighboring school district felt exciting. I really enjoy working with teachers and feel I can be of help. Besides, I sense that I need a next step in my career. Sure the classroom and the kids are still important to me, but it's not **just** the kids anymore. I think I have some responsibility to the profession, too. If we're ever going to be recognized publicly as more than a quasiprofession, we need to help each other become the best we can be. I need to keep growing, or I'll get complacent like some of my colleagues.

Yet, there's an ambivalence in me. Taking on a new significant role appeals to my need for growth and recognition, but the fear of the snide comments from my current colleagues inhibits my risk taking. Would I be jeopardizing the relationships I've developed at this school site by applying for a new role in the school system? Maybe those who don't recall and understand the importance of guiding and assisting new teachers aren't worth considering as colleagues. Maybe that fear is unfounded. The peer coaching program that we began planning last semester certainly received much interest and support. If we're ready to establish those kinds of collegial relationships, we are also probably ready to provide support people for new teachers. Maybe I could help organize a collective support team for each new teacher so that everyone in the school somehow gets involved in helping beginning teachers.

I really don't even know enough about mentoring relationships to understand what might be required. Do I even have the necessary skills? I've read enough to have a general idea of the role, but I don't know all the responsibilities that I might assume. How might I match up with new teachers? How formal or informal will the relationship be? How long will my involvement last with the new teacher? What kind of compensation and time will be offered to mentors? I surely can't provide a lot of help without more time. There must be many different ways to proceed exemplified in a variety of mentoring programs. I hope this is just a support program and not an assessment system. I don't think I could be a very effective mentor if I had to formally evaluate.

I wonder what preparation will be provided and by whom? My interpersonal skills are okay, but can always stand a little sharpening. My experience as a cooperating teacher is certainly useful, but I've always felt that supervision is an area about which I need to know more. I am a good teacher, and I feel that I can confidently walk into almost any classroom and model good teaching. That's worth something. I do love to talk about teaching, with anybody, and to keep getting better at what I do. I read a couple of education journals pretty regularly to keep abreast of the new trends. (No profession seems to have as many trends as education!) Yet, it seems to me that anyone responsible for successfully introducing a beginner to this professional world ought to have some very well-developed talents and some time to carry out those duties. I certainly can't teach full-time and assume additional duties. The sponsorship of a new professional is an extremely important role. It seems that potentially, I could learn as much about myself and my own teaching as the new teacher.

That's probably the best argument for going to the informational meeting. Improving the quality of teaching will improve the quality of student learning. My classes over the last 11 years are proof of that. As I have become a better teacher, my students have learned more, better. I don't know what the research says, but I have my own clinical proof -- a collection of anecdotes of successful student learning. Isn't that, after all, why the best teachers keep at it year after year? Aren't those the rewards of this work? If I can help new teachers get through the "survival" stage sooner and focus on student learning earlier in their careers -- that would be an accomplishment!

The benefits of mentoring to everyone seem obvious. To the beginning teacher, being assisted to reflect and analyze his or her classroom behaviors seems vital. It's also pretty clear to me that the mentor could learn a lot as well. Mutual participation in this endeavor can only help me learn new skills and reassess my own teaching behavior and beliefs. But let's not forget why most of us got into this business in the first place -- the students. Mentoring is probably just good teaching. And good teaching works at any level with anybody.

If mentoring in this Beginning Teacher Support Program can promote collegial discussions and planning about the betterment of education for students, new teachers, and veterans like myself, then I'm making a decision right here to go to that informational meeting and learn more.

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FIGURE 1.11 STAGES OF CONCERN ABOUT THE INNOVATION

6	REFOCUSING:	The focus is on exploration of more universal benefits from the innovation, including the possibility of major changes or replacement with a more powerful alternative. Individual has definite ideas about alternatives to the proposed or existing form of the innovation.
5	COLLABORATION:	The focus is on coordination and cooperation with others regarding use of the innovation.
4	CONSEQUENCE:	Attention focuses on the impact of the innovation on the student in his or her immediate sphere of influence. The focus is on relevance of the innovation for students, evaluating student outcomes, including performance and competencies, and changes needed to increase student outcomes.
3	MANAGEMENT:	Attention is focused on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Issues related to efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands are of utmost importance.
2	PERSONAL:	Individual is uncertain about the demands of the innovation, his or her inadequacy to meet those demands, and his or her role with the innovation. This includes analysis of his or her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decision making, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structure or personal commitment. Financial or status implications of the program for self and colleagues may also be reflected.
1	INFORMATIONAL:	A general awareness of the innovation and interest in learning more detail about it is indicated. The person seems to be at ease with himself or herself in relation to the innovation. She or he is selflessly interested in substantive aspects of the innovation in a selfless manner such as general characteristics, effects, and requirements for use.
0	AWARENESS:	Little concern about or involvement with the innovation is indicated.

Source: Hall and Loucks, Op. Cit., 1-38.

ACTIVITY 1-15

MENTORS AS CHANGE AGENTS

Purpose(s): To help participants consider the variety of skills that they might use in their new role as mentors

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Key Skills for Educational Assistance Personnel" (Figure 1.12) for each participant, journal (optional), newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: This activity not only helps groups identify mentoring skills, but it can also serve as a personal needs assessment. A personal assessment of strengths and weaknesses in these skill areas can help individuals begin to plan to improve their mentoring skills.

Since groups will be asked to agree on a list of skills, some rules of constructive controversy and decision making might be reviewed. See Appendix 1-D, "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy," on page 1-175 and "Approaches to Decision Making" in Appendix 1-E on page 1-179.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants form groups of four.
2. Review rules of constructive controversy in "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy," Appendix 1-D, and possible ways groups can reach decisions in "Approaches to Decision Making," Appendix 1-E. Allow the discussion among participants to develop.
3. Distribute the handout "Key Skills for Educational Assistance Personnel" and give participants time to read it.
4. Ask each group to collectively agree upon the five items from the list of 18 that are the most necessary to the role of mentor, and to record them on newsprint.
5. (Optional) Ask each group to identify a secondary list of five skills that would be next to most important to the mentor role.
6. Have each group share its list with the whole group, identifying those items that sparked the most debate within its group.
7. (Optional) Have individuals rate themselves (on a Likert scale 1-5, 1 = I already demonstrate this skill; 5 = I really need to learn this skill) on those five skills that each small group selected. Group members could then solicit suggestions from others on how they could develop the skill that they feel is their weakest. (This part of the activity requires an atmosphere of trust, as it involves a degree of risk taking.)

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

FIGURE 1.12 KEY SKILLS FOR EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE PERSONNEL

Description	*Examples*
1. **Interpersonal Ease**: Relating to and directing others.	Very open person; nice manner, has always been able to deal with staff; knows when to stroke, when to hold back, when to assert; knows "which buttons to push"; gives individuals time to vent feelings; lets them know her interest in them; can talk to anyone.
2. **Group Functioning**: Understanding group dynamics, able to facilitate team work.	Has ability to get a group moving; started with nothing and then made us come together as a unified body; good group facilitator, lets discussion flow.
3. **Training/Doing Workshops**: Directing instruction, teaching adults in systematic way.	Gave workshops on how to develop plans; taught us consensus method with five-finger game; prepares a great deal and enjoys it; has the right chemistry and can impact knowledge at the peer level.
4. **General Knowledge** (Master Teacher): Wide educational experience, able to impart skills to others.	Excellent teaching skills; taught all the grades, grade leader work, resource teacher, has done staff development with teachers; was always assisting, supporting, being resource person to teachers; a real master teacher, much teacher training work.
5. **Educational Content**: Knowledge of school subject matter.	Demonstrating expertise in a subject area; showed parents the value of play and trips in kindergarten; knows a great deal about teaching; what she doesn't know she finds out.
6. **Administrative/Organizational**: Defining and structuring work, activities, time.	Highly organized, has everything prepared in advance; could take an idea and turn it into a program; good at prioritizing, scheduling; knows how to set things up.
7. **Initiative-Taking**: Starting or pushing activities, moving directly toward action.	Assertive, clear sense of what he wanted to do; ability to poke and prod where needed to get things done; had to assert myself so he didn't step in.
8. **Trust/Rapport-Building**: Developing a sense of safety, openness, reduced threat on part of clients: good relationship building.	In two weeks, he had gained confidence of staff; had to become one of the gang, eat lunch with them; a skilled seducer (knows how to get people to ask for help): "I have not repeated what they said so trust was built"; did not threaten staff; was so open and understanding that I stopped feeling uneasy.
9. **Support**: Providing nurturing relationship; positive, affective relationship.	Able to accept harsh things teachers say, "It's okay, everyone has these feelings"; a certain compassion for others; always patient, never critical, very enthusiastic.
10. **Confrontation**: Direct expression of negative information without generating a negative effect.	Can challenge in a positive way; will lay it on the line about what works and what won't; is talkative and factual; can point out things and get away with being blunt; able to tell people they were wrong, and they accept it.

Source: Saxl, Op. Cit., 1-40.

FIGURE 1.12 KEY SKILLS FOR EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE PERSONNEL (continued)

Description	*Examples*
11. **Conflict Mediation**: Resolving or improving situations in which multiple incompatible interests are in play.	Effected a compromise between upper- and lower-grade teachers on use of a checklist; spoke to the chair about his autocratic behavior, and things have been considerably better; able to mediate and get the principal to soften her attitude; can handle people who are terribly angry, unreasonable; keeps cool.
12. **Collaboration**: Creating relationships in which influence is mutually shared.	Deals on same level we do, puts in his ideas; leads and directs us, but as peers; doesn't judge us or put us down; has ideas of his own, but flexible enough to maintain the teachers' way of doing things, too.
13. **Confidence-Building**: Strengthening client's sense of efficacy, belief in self.	She makes all feel confident and competent; doesn't patronize: "You can do it"; has a way of drawing out teacher's ideas; injects a great deal, but you feel powerful; makes people feel great about themselves; like a shot of adrenaline boosting your mind, ego, talents, and professional expertise.
14. **Diagnosing Individuals**: Forming a valid picture of needs/problems of an individual teacher or administrator as a basis for action.	Realizing that when a teacher says she has the worst class, she means "I need help"; has an ability to focus in on problems; picks up the real message; sensitive, looks at teacher priorities first; knows when an offhand joke is a signal for help.
15. **Diagnosing Organizations**: Forming a valid picture of the needs/problems of the school organization as a basis for action.	Analyzes situation, recognizes problems, jumps from where you are to where you want to go; anticipates problems schools face when they enter the program; helped us see where we should be going; helped them look at the data in the assessment package.
16. **Managing/Controlling**: Orchestrating the improvement process; coordinating activities, time, and people: direct influence on others.	Prepared materials and coordinated our contact with administration and district; is a task master and keeps the process going; makes people do things rather than doing them himself.
17. **Resource-Bringing**: Locating and providing information, materials, practices, equipment useful to clients.	He uses his network to get us supplies; brings ideas that he has seen work elsewhere; has the newest research methods, articles, and ideas, and waters them down for our needs.
18. **Demonstration**: Modeling new behavior in classrooms or meetings.	Willing to go into classrooms and take risks; modeling; showed the chair by his own behavior how to be more open.

ACTIVITY 1-16

BECOMING A MENTOR: A PERSONAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND GROWTH PLAN

Purpose(s): To develop a growth plan based upon a mentor needs assessment

Materials: One copy of a self-developed instrument or of Manthei's *Mentor Teacher Preparation Inventory and Guide for Planning and Action* for each participant (see page 1-158 for ordering information), newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: This activity is most effective if used after teachers have received an initial orientation to mentoring and before they begin serving as mentor teachers.

Depending on the size of the group, this activity can be done together or in small groups that report back to the whole group. It can be very rewarding to have a group of potential mentors develop a list of necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions to successfully fill that role. However, reducing and refining this information into a useful self-assessment tool does require considerable time (see directions for "The Nominal Group Process" in Appendix 1-F on page 1-183).

For those who would like to use a ready-made inventory, we find Manthei's instrument to be of value. This carefully developed and well-researched instrument takes potential mentors through a thoughtful self-assessment in the areas of personal motivation for becoming a mentor, personal traits and qualities that support effective mentoring, areas of knowledge and skill as a classroom teacher, areas of knowledge and skill as a mentor teacher, and knowledge of school culture and organizational issues associated with a mentoring program. Based upon that inventory, Manthei then leads each individual to build an action growth plan both as a classroom teacher and as a mentor teacher. Parts of the tool could be used separately, but we think that total administration will be the most beneficial. If you choose to use this instrument, start with Step 5.

The inventory and especially the action plan can be most effective when shared with colleagues (Steps 5-7). This gives mentors opportunities to practice those skills that will serve them best in that role. In Step 7, you should consider the environment, the comfort level of the group, and the time available when deciding whether the step is done in pairs or in groups.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants form groups of four or five.
2. Ask participants to brainstorm what mentors need to know (knowledge), be able to do (skills), and value (dispositions). Each area should be put onto a different sheet of newsprint.
3. Use "The Nominal Group Process" (see Appendix 1-F) to reach agreement on a list.
4. As a whole group, develop an inventory based upon that list.

5. Administer the inventory. It is most effective if used after teachers have received an initial orientation to mentoring and before they begin serving as mentor teachers.
6. Have participants develop a tentative growth plan based upon the results of the inventory.
7. In pairs or small groups of four or five, provide participants with an opportunity to request feedback on their mentor growth plan.
8. In the large group, ask participants to brainstorm a variety of ways in which they can review their progress on their growth plan and receive support throughout their mentoring experience.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

ACTIVITY 1-17

EXPLORING DIVERSITY, PART 1

Purpose(s): To assist participants in assessing their own conceptions of diversity and how these conceptions influence working relationships with colleagues and students

Materials: Newsprint, easel, markers, tape, blank overhead, overhead projector and screen, overhead pens, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This is the first in a series of three activities that addresses diversity. These activities are designed to build upon one another and assist participants in understanding and valuing diversity. Additional information and two activities on diversity (Activity 3-3, "Understanding and Celebrating Diversity," and Activity 3-4, "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor") can be found in Chapter 3.

It is important to stress that this activity is designed to challenge participants' underlying assumptions about diversity, to note how these assumptions inhibit and enhance their working relationships, and to discuss how these assumptions, in turn, influence student performance. While participants are being asked to arrive at consensus, it is not necessarily important that they arrive at whole-group consensus at the end of the activity. That, in itself, demonstrates diversity.

You might want to explore your own definition of diversity. The scope of diversity can include age, gender, ability, culture, language, race, ethnicity, national origin, socioeconomic status, religion, and sexual orientation.

Process/Steps:

1. Briefly review the purpose of the activity with participants.

2. Give participants five minutes to individually record their definition of diversity. Ask them to provide specific descriptors (for example, socioeconomic, gender).

3. Ask participants to get into pairs. Allow them five minutes to arrive at consensus on up to ten descriptors of diversity. Participants may adopt one or the other's definition or create another.

4. Have each pair join with another pair and begin the consensus-building process again. Throughout the process, remind participants to:

   - Be brief and use language all will understand.
   - Ask for clarification, when necessary, and encourage inquiry.
   - Look outside of their own viewpoint and try seeing another's point of view.
   - Consider which obstacles limit their view and which obstacles are self-imposed.

As groups increase in size, the time needed to reach consensus should increase. For example, when in groups of four, participants may need 7-10 minutes; in groups of eight, 10-12; in groups of 16, 12-15 minutes. The size of the consensus-building group should grow until the group reaches a manageable size (up to 16).

5. When groups reach the maximum size of 16, have each group record its definition on newsprint and identify a reporter.

6. Have each reporter share his or her group's definition with the larger group.

7. As groups report out, you can note the similarities and differences among these definitions of diversity by recording them on a blank overhead. In the whole-group discussion, explore the implications of these differences for relationships between mentors and new teachers, parents and teachers, and teachers and students.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

ACTIVITY 1-18

EXPLORING DIVERSITY, PART 2

Purpose(s): To assist participants in assessing their own conceptions of diversity and how these conceptions influence working relationships with colleagues and students

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Cultural Checklist" for each participant and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity challenges one's underlying assumptions about culture and reveals personal discovery of self and others. Although the attached checklist can be used as a self-contained activity to engage participants in discussion, it can also be used as a pre- and post-activity to Activity 1-19, "Facing Diversity."

Process/Steps:

1. Distribute the handout "Cultural Checklist" to each participant and ask them to complete it individually.
2. Have participants share their responses.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

CULTURAL CHECKLIST

Directions: Make a check mark beside each statement with which you agree. You may use the space under each statement to write any comments or explanations.

☐ 1. The United States, like many other countries, has a monolithic culture and a standard language.

☐ 2. Cultural traits are inherited, that is, they are passed along to offspring through genetic code.

☐ 3. The most salient and important dimension in communication is language.

☐ 4. There is only one standard English. All deviations from this register are incorrect or inadequate uses of the language.

☐ 5. Speaking a nonstandard dialect suggests (check all that apply):

____ low socioeconomic status
____ racial minority
____ speech deficiency
____ neurological disorder

☐ 6. Everyone has a culture.

☐ 7. Regardless of the culture, attitudes toward women are the same.

____

____

☐ 8. In order to survive in American society, students need to learn to be competitive and work individually.

____

____

☐ 9. There are universal rules for (check all that apply):

- _____ interpreting a smile
- _____ showing respect
- _____ showing friendliness
- _____ being polite
- _____ being intrusive
- _____ being disrespectful
- _____ being rude
- _____ being communicative
- _____ paying attention
- _____ being bored
- _____ being humorous
- _____ showing support and interest in education
- _____ learning
- _____ teaching
- _____ engaging in conversation
- _____ interpreting silence
- _____ emphasizing a point in conversation
- _____ taking turns in conversations
- _____ showing loyalty to family and friends
- _____ insulting others

☐ 10. People who speak the same language share the same culture.

____

____

☐ 11. There are individual differences among people who share a common culture.

____

____

☐ 12. There is a high correlation between socioeconomic status and race.

____

____

☐ 13. Children coming from poor families will do poorly in school.

____

____

☐ 14. Mainstreaming exceptional children has an adverse effect on the average student's achievement.

____

____

☐ 15. Teachers should not be assigned many diverse students.

____

____

☐ 16. All languages share a common sound (phonetic) system, so a student who has difficulty with the production of a specific sound could be helped by speech therapy.

____

____

☐ 17. It is the responsibility of the school to provide support to gay and lesbian adolescents, in light of the fact that one in three teens who commit suicide are from this population.

____

____

ACTIVITY 1-19

FACING DIVERSITY

Purpose(s): To understand the issues and realities of teaching in pluralistic school and community environments

Materials: Directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 1-C, enough copies of the handouts "Facing Diversity: Major Themes of Article" and "Questions for Discussion" for each participant, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: Refer to the instructions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 1-C on page 1-171 to conduct this activity. Depending on the number of participants, you may want to choose three or four articles (any of the following or your own choice) that address more than one type of diversity.

"Early Risks: Transition from Culturally/Linguistically Diverse Homes to Formal Schooling" by Esther K. Leung. Summer 1990. In *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students* 7: 35-51.

"Improving the Success in School of Poor Black Children" by Shirl E. Gilbert II and Gay Geneva. October 1985. In *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (2): 133-137.

"'Echar Pa'Lante,' Moving Onward: The Dilemmas and Strategies of a Bilingual Teacher" by Martha Montero-Sieburth and Marla Perez. September 1987. In *Anthropology and Education Quarterly* 18 (3): 180-189.

"Teachers and Cultural Styles in a Pluralistic Society" by Asa G. Hilliard. January 1989. In *NEA Today* 7 (6): 65-69.

Process/Steps:

1. Specific assignment for expert group: Have each expert group reach consensus on three to five major points in the article that its members need to bring back to their home group (see the handout "Facing Diversity: Major Themes of Article").
2. After members have regrouped in the home group and have had the opportunity to present the major points of their assigned article, the group will engage in general discussion using the handout "Questions for Discussion."
3. Ask participants to reconsider their definitions of diversity generated in Activity 1-17. Is their definition still valid or do they want to revise it?
4. Discuss the differences between understanding and valuing diversity.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

FACING DIVERSITY: MAJOR THEMES OF ARTICLE

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In what ways are pluralistic classrooms and schools different from an average classroom?

2. In what ways are they similar to an average classroom?

3. What are some of the dilemmas and challenges presented to teachers in these situations?

4. In the face of these realities, what knowledge, skills, and attitudes do teachers need to be effective in these environments?

5. What are the implications for mentors of teachers assigned to classrooms that are highly pluralistic? What kinds of questions and dilemmas are likely to surface?

RESOURCES ON UNDERSTANDING CRITICAL COMPONENTS OF A MENTORING PROGRAM

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Selected Print Resources

Burden, Paul R. 1990. "Teacher Development." In *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*, edited by W. Robert Houston. New York: Macmillan.

> The author provides a thorough, concise review of theories regarding adult development, teacher development, and adult learning styles.

Levine, Sarah L. 1989. *Promoting Adult Growth in Schools: The Promise of Professional Development*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

> This is a very readable version of the adult development theories of Erikson, Levinson, Gould, Kohlberg, Loevinger, and Kegan and how they apply to educators and schools (see Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 13, in particular).

North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division of Program Approval. 1986-87. *North Carolina Mentor/Support Team Training Program*. Raleigh, NC: North Carolina Department of Public Instruction.

> Session 4 in this manual is titled "The Adult Learner." Authored by Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman Sprinthall, it contains case studies, activities, and articles appropriate to that subject matter.

Oja, Sharon Nodie. 1989. "Teachers: Ages and Stages of Adult Development." In *Perspectives on Teacher Professional Development*, edited by Mary Louise Holly and Caven S. McLoughlin. London: Falmer Press.

> This chapter discusses four case studies on teacher development in relation to phases and stages of adult development. Theoretical contributions of researchers are applied as a lens for understanding the professional growth needs of teachers.

___________. 1991. "Adult Development: Insights on Staff Development." In *Staff Development for Education in the '90s: New Demands, New Realities, and New Perspectives*, edited by Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller. New York: Teachers College Press.

> Oja offers a concise review of the phase and stage theories of adult development. The work focuses on the design elements that are important in planning for adult development in educational settings.

Thies-Sprinthall, Lois. November-December 1986. "A Collaborative Approach for Mentor Training: A Working Model." *Journal of Teacher Education* 37 (6): 13-20.

> This article describes a mentoring program, based on adult development theory, that was developed by the author to be used in some areas of North Carolina. The program is based on three assumptions: the focus of the model would be to provide intensive training in supervision to mentors; the training would be school-based, on-site, and continue over a considerable period of time; and the instruction of mentors would be based upon theory and research. Effects on teacher trainers, mentors, and beginning teachers are discussed.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Thies-Sprinthall, Lois and Sprinthall, Norman. April 1987. "Experienced Teachers: Agents for Revitalization and Renewal as Mentors and Teacher Educators." *Journal of Education* 169 (1): 65-79.

> The paper includes a discussion of matching and mismatching a learner's current preferred learning style or stage of adult development to promote growth.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Other Resources

Belenky, Mary Field; Clinchy, Blythe; Goldberger, Nancy; and Tarule, Jill Mattuck. 1986. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind.* New York: Basic Books.

Belenky, Mary Field; Clinchy, Blythe; Goldberger, Nancy; and Tarule, Jill Mattuck. Fall 1985. "Epistemological Development and the Politics of Talk in Family Life." *Journal of Education* 167 (3): 9-27.

Broughton, John M. Fall 1983. "Women's Rationality and Men's Virtues: A Critique of Gender Dualism in Gilligan's Theory of Moral Development." *Social Research* 50 (3): 597-642.

Chickering, Arthur W. and Associates. 1981. *The Modern American College: Responding to the New Realities of Diverse Students and a Changing Society.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Clinchy, Blythe McVicker; Belenky, Mary Field; Goldberger, Nancy; and Tarule, Jill Mattuck. Fall 1985. "Connected Education for Women." *Journal of Education* 167 (3): 28-45.

Curry, Lynn. 1990. *Learning Styles in Secondary Schools: A Review of Instruments and Implications for Their Use.* Madison, WI: National Center on Effective Secondary Schools.

Daloz, Laurent A. 1986. *Effective Teaching and Mentoring, Realizing the Transformational Power of Adult Learning Experiences.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dunn, Rita and Griggs, Shirley A. 1988. *Learning Styles: Quiet Revolution in American Secondary Schools.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Erikson, Erik H. 1980. *Identity and the Life Cycle.* New York: Norton.

Feiman-Nemser, Sharon. 1983. "Learning to Teach." In *Handbook of Teaching and Policy,* edited by Lee Shulman and Gary Sykes. New York: Longman, Inc.

Feiman, Sharon and Floden, Robert E. 1980a. *Approaches to Staff Development from Conceptions of Teacher Development.* East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, College of Education.

___________. 1980b. *What's All This Talk about Teacher Development?* East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching.

Floden, Robert E. and Feiman, Sharon. 1981. *The Relationship of Adult Developmental Theories to Teacher Education.* East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Other Resources (continued)

Fuller, Frances F. March 1969. "Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization." *American Educational Research Journal* 6 (2): 207-226.

Gilligan, Carol. 1982. *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gilligan, Carol; Lyons, Nona P.; and Hanmer, Trudy J. 1990. *Making Connections: The Relational Worlds of Adolescent Girls at Emma Willard School.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gilligan, Carol; Ward, Jane Victoria; Taylor, Jill McLean; and Betty Bardige. 1988. *Mapping the Moral Domain.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gould, Roger L. 1978. *Transformations: Growth and Change in Adult Life.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Gregorc, Anthony F. and Ward, Helen B. February 1977. "Implications for Teaching and Learning: A New Definition for Individual." *NASSP Bulletin* 61 (406): 20-26.

Hilgersom-Volk, Karin. May 1987. "Celebrating Students' Diversity Through Learning Styles." *Oregon School Study Council Bulletin* 30 (8): 1-27.

Hirsch, Sandra K. and Kummerow, Jean M. 1987. *Introduction to Type in Organizational Settings.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists.

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Oja, Sharon Nodie and Chaltas, John. Summer 1986, unpublished manuscript. "Intellectual Development NSF/FIPSE Teachers' Workshop, Mathematics Education Summer Program." Durham, NH: University of New Hampshire.

Pratt, Daniel D. Spring 1988. "Andragogy as a Relational Construct." *Adult Education Quarterly* 38 (3): 160-171.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Other Resources (continued)

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Witherell, Carol S. and Erickson, V. Lois. June 1978. "Teacher Education as Adult Development." *Theory Into Practice* 17 (3): 229-238.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Audiovisual Resources

Sprinthall, Norman A. and Thies-Sprinthall, Lois. "Adult Development Growth Model."

> This tape describes several key aspects of a year-long teacher internship program in North Carolina. An interview with Dr. Norman Sprinthall highlights adult development stage theory as a primary focus of this program. Using David Hunt's model of teachers' conceptual levels, Dr. Sprinthall provides examples of how mentor teachers can provide a best match with the developmental needs of the teacher intern. Five conditions for promoting growth are discussed, as well as the concept of "match and mismatch" as a catalyst in promoting adult growth. Stage theory research supports a high level of predictability between teachers' stage and behavior in complex situations.

Available on loan from:
The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement
of the Northeast and Islands
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
(800) 347-4200
Attn: Northeast Common Market Project

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Learning Style Inventories

Dunn, Rita; Dunn, Kenneth; and Price, Gary E. 1989. *Learning Style Inventory* (adult version).

Available from:
Price Systems, Inc.
P.O. Box 3067
Lawrence, KS 66046

Gregorc, Anthony. 1982. *The Gregorc Style Delineator of the ORGANON System and An Adult's Guide to Style.*

Available from:
Gabriel Systems, Inc.
P.O. Box 357
Maynard, MA 01754

Kolb, David A. 1985. *Learning Style Inventory.*

Available from:
McBer and Company
137 Newbury Street
Boston, MA 02116

ADULT DEVELOPMENT – Personality Type Indicator

Myers, E.I.B. 1962. *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.* (Can only be purchased by individuals who are certified by Myers-Briggs.)

Available from:
Association for Psychological Type
P.O. Box 5099
Gainesville, FL 32602-5099

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE – Selected Print Resources

Canning, Christine. March 1991. "What Teachers Say about Reflection." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 18-21.

> This article defines reflection and a process through which reflection is nurtured in teachers. Particular questions that prompt reflection and affirmations that support reflection are outlined. Teachers share their reactions to "developing their own voice."

Clift, Renee T.; Houston, Robert W.; and Pugach, Marleen C., eds. 1990. *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education: An Analysis of Issues and Programs.* New York and London: Teachers College Press.

> This critical review of teacher education programs in the United States and Canada explores the possibility for novice and experienced teachers to engage in reflective practice. While focusing on the "how to," this book addresses fundamental questions about the nature and function of reflective practice relative to the various theoretical, conceptual, and practical constructs that shape the current reform movement. The essays draw upon the writings in the field of educational research and reflective practice over the last 50 years from Dewey to Schon. Incisive accounts by practitioners in the field encourage debate of the moral, ethical, and political foundations of professional practice and curriculum design. Implications for school-district, university, and state-level policy makers; curriculum developers; parents; business; and community stakeholders are discussed.

Evans, Claryce. March 1991. "Support for Teachers Studying Their Own Work." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 11-13.

> This article describes the Educators' Forum program at the Harvard Graduate School of Education that helps stimulate and guide teachers as they study their own practice.

Grimmett, Peter P. and Erickson, Gaalen L. 1988. *Reflection in Teacher Education.* New York and London: Pacific Educational Press and Teachers College Press.

> The writings of Schon provide the context and perspective for this collection of essays on reflective practice in teacher education. The book is divided into three sections: the proceedings of the symposium of the 1987 American Educational Research Association meeting; research in education by others in the field who follow Schon's model; and critiques of Schon's thinking as represented in two of his major works, *The Reflective Practitioner* and *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. The editors present an overview of Dewey's early formulation of reflective inquiry along with other writers as a tentative framework for interpretation of the current body of knowledge. The book is intended to spark rigorous debate on the efficacy of Schon's work and its relevance for educational practice and teacher preparation.

Hord, Shirley M. February 1986. "A Synthesis of Research on Organizational Collaboration." *Educational Leadership* 43 (5): 22-26.

> The distinction between cooperation and collaboration is the focus of this article. These differences are discussed from both an individual and organizational perspective.

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Killion, Joellen P. and Todnem, Guy R. March 1991. "A Process for Personal Theory Building." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 14-16.

> This article defines reflection and presents the authors' process for engaging workshop participants in reflection. Schon's notion of reflection-in-action is taken one step further through a discussion of reflection-for-action as the ultimate goal of all other forms of reflection. This form of reflection refers to the teacher anticipating ways of adjusting the plan, given a variety of possible variables.

Lieberman, Ann. February 1986a. "Collaborative Research: Working With, Not Working On . . ." *Educational Leadership* 43 (5): 28-32.

> Collaborative action research as a catalyst for professional development and organizational change is addressed in this article. Examples of collaborative action research teams are provided, including research questions and research outcomes.

Lieberman, Ann. February 1986b. "Collaborative Work." *Educational Leadership* 43 (5): 4-8.

> This article explores the connections between action research, collaborative work, and peer support teams. Examples of collaborative work and the support necessary for this work are discussed.

Meek, Anne. March 1991. "On Thinking about Teaching: A Conversation with Eleanor Duckworth." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 30-34.

> Duckworth shares her thoughts on thinking about teaching. Key concepts are: the need to let individuals develop an understanding, not tell them what they ought to understand; the need to make people feel their ideas are acceptable; the need to encourage people to not agree with each other in a way that accepts the other person's idea as interesting and responds with other thoughts that make one not agree; and the need to set the groundwork for individuals to play around with ideas.

Oja, Sharon Nodie and Smulyan, Lisa. 1989. *Collaborative Action Research: A Developmental Approach*. London, New York, and Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.

> The process of collaborative inquiry is the focus of an action research project in one school setting. Participation in collaborative action research is explored relative to its impact on the developmental growth of adults. Loevinger's stages of ego development provide an operational framework for discussing the developmental differences in each of the teachers serving on the action research team. Several case studies are presented describing the stage of development of each teacher serving on the action research team. Stage of development is discussed relative to the perspectives and roles of the team members as they participated in the project.

Posner, George J. 1985. *Field Experience: A Guide to Reflective Teaching*. New York: Longman, Inc.

> This is a book to be used by student teachers who are involved in field experiences at any level of a teacher education program. It is based on the premise that students will benefit from their experiences by preparing for and reflecting on them. Its purpose is to provoke thought; it is not a text filled with facts to memorize or a handbook filled with dos and don'ts. Readers are encouraged to respond to questions, do exercises, and state personal beliefs.

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Russell, Thomas L. and Spafford, Charlotte. 1986. "Teachers as Reflective Practitioners in Peer Supervision." A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED270 410)

The use of teachers as reflective users of peer clinical supervision, a research and literature review related to the assumptions of clinical supervision fostering reflective practice through clinical supervision, and the special potential of peer clinical supervision are presented. A personal view of clinical supervision is offered and a conclusion about clinical supervision is given.

Sagor, Richard. March 1991. "What Project LEARN Reveals about Collaborative Action Research." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 6-10.

This article describes Project LEARN (League of Educational Research in the Northwest), a collaboration between Washington State University and the faculties of more than 50 schools who have initiated school improvement by engaging in action research. It identifies five factors that have facilitated the project's work: importance of volition, availability of critical friends, first-class environment, public affirmations, and strategic scheduling; acknowledges action research as a way to improve the professional lives of teachers and thus teaching and learning in schools; and provides examples from the teachers involved.

Schon, Donald A. 1990. *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This book argues that professional education should be centered on enhancing the practitioner's ability for "reflection-in-action," i.e., learning by doing and developing the ability for continued learning and problem solving.

Sparks-Langer, Georgea M. and Colton, Amy B. March 1991. "Synthesis of Research on Teachers' Reflective Thinking." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 37-44.

The authors review research on three elements that are important in teachers' reflective thinking: cognition, critical thinking, and narrative inquiry. The cognitive element describes how teachers process information and make decisions. The critical element focuses on the substance that drives the thinking -- experiences, goals, values, and social implications. Narrative inquiry refers to teachers' own interpretations of events that occur within their particular contexts.

Watkins, John. 1992. "Speaking of Action Research." Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

This paper provides a readable overview of action research and discusses what it is and what it is not.

Yinger, Robert J. 1990. "The Conversation of Practice." In *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education: An Analysis of Issues and Programs*, edited by Renee T. Clift, W. Robert Houston, and Marleen C. Pugach. New York: Teachers College Press.

Yinger explores what he refers to as the "intelligence of practice." He describes how teachers move from the more analytical process of planning, implementation, and reflection to a more relativistic process of improvisation, contemplation, and preparation. Further discussion highlights the moral and ethical implications of the latter process.

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE – Other Resources

Anzul, Margaret and Ely, Margot. November 1988. "Halls of Mirrors: The Introduction of the Reflective Mode." *Language Arts* 65 (7): 675-687.

Berkey, Ramona; Curtis, Teresa; Minnick, Francine; Zietlow, Kathryn; Campbell, Douglas; and Kirschner, Becky W. February 1990. "Collaborating for Reflective Practice: Voices of Teachers, Administrators, and Researchers." *Education and Urban Society* 22 (2): 204-232.

Cruickshank, Donald R. June 1985. "Uses and Benefits of Reflective Teaching." *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (10): 704-706.

Diakiw, Jerry and Beatty, Neil. March 1991. "A Superintendent and a Principal Write to Each Other." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 47-50.

Ditchburn, Susan; Jardine, David; and Prasow, Cynthia. Winter 1990. "The Emerging Voice: Toward Reflective Practice." *Teaching and Learning: The Journal of Natural Inquiry* 4 (2): 20-29.

Fulghum, Robert. 1990. *It Was on Fire When I Lay Down on It*. New York: Villard Books.

Gore, Jennifer M. 1991. "Practicing What We Preach: Action Research and the Supervision of Student Teachers." In *Issues and Practices in Inquiry-Oriented Teacher Education*, edited by B. Robert Tabachnick and Kenneth M. Zeichner. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.

Grimmett, Peter P. and Crehan, E. Patricia. Spring 1990. "Barry: A Case Study of Teacher Reflection in Clinical Supervision." *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 5 (3): 214-235.

Haring-Hidore, Marilyn; Freeman, Susan C.; Phelps, Susan; Spann, Nancy G.; and Wooten, Jr., H. Ray. February 1990. "Women Administrators' Ways of Knowing." *Education and Urban Society* 22 (2): 170-181.

Hart, Ann Weaver. February 1990. "Effective Administration through Reflective Practice." *Education and Urban Society* 22 (2): 153-169.

Kemmis, Stephen and DiChiro, Giovanna. Spring 1987. "Emerging and Evolving Issues of Action Research Praxis: An Australian Perspective." *Peabody Journal of Education* 64 (3): 101-130.

Kemmis, Stephen and McTaggert, Robin, eds. 1987. *The Action Research Planner*. Geelong, Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Kirby, Peggy C. and Teddlie, Charles. Summer 1989. "Development of the Reflective Teaching Instrument." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 22 (4): 45-51.

Kottkamp, Robert B. February 1990. "Means for Facilitating Reflection." *Education and Urban Society* 22 (2): 182-203.

Mezirow, Jack and Associates. 1990. *Fostering Critical Reflection in Adulthood: A Guide to Transformative and Emancipatory Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Munby, Hugh. March 1989. "Reflection-in-action and Reflection-on-action." A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED309 163)

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE -- Other Resources (continued)

Nolan, James E. and Huber, Tonya. Winter 1989. "Nurturing the Reflective Practitioner through Instructional Supervision: A Review of the Literature." *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 4 (2): 26-45.

Osterman, Karen F. Fall 1989. "Quotations. A Symposium on Schon's Concept of Reflective Practice: Critiques, Commentaries, Illustrations." *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 5 (1): 6-9.

_________. February 1990. "Reflective Practice: A New Agenda for Education." *Education and Urban Society* 22 (2): 133-152.

Schon, Donald A. 1983. *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

_________. 1987. *Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Toward a New Design for Teaching and Learning in the Professions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Stevenson, Robert B. Winter 1991. "Action Research as Professional Development: A U.S. Case Study of Inquiry-Oriented In-service Education." *Journal of Education for Teaching* 17 (3): 277-291.

Wellington, Bud. March 1991. "The Promise of Reflective Thinking." *Educational Leadership* 48 (6): 4-5.

Winter, R. 1990. *Learning from Experience: Principles and Practices in Action Research*. London: Falmer Press.

Wood, Patricia. April 1988. "Action Research: A Field Perspective." A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED295 938.)

Zeichner, Kenneth M. Spring 1989. "Reflecting on Reflection," *Colloquy* 2: 15-21.

Zeichner, Kenneth M. and Liston, Daniel P. February 1987. "Teaching Student Teachers to Reflect." *Harvard Educational Review* 57 (1): 23-47.

CHANGE -- Selected Print Resources

Fullan, Michael G. with Suzanne Stiegelbauer. 1991. *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. New York: Teachers College Press.

> **This book presents a comprehensive, thoughtful, and up-to-date look at this subject. Part I examines the phenomenon of educational change. Part II develops the roles of all stakeholders at the local level in the change process. Part III discusses educational change at the regional and national level.**

CHANGE – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Guskey, Thomas R. May 1986. "Staff Development and the Process of Teacher Change." *Educational Researcher* 15 (4): 5-12.

> This article presents a model that describes the process of teacher change, particularly through staff development programs. The model suggests a temporal sequence of events that is hypothesized to typify the process from staff development to enduring change in teachers' perceptions and attitudes. Research evidence supporting the model is summarized and the conditions under which change might be facilitated are described. Several principles for enhancing the change process to improve staff development efforts are also outlined.

Hall, Gene E. and Loucks, Susan. Fall 1978. "Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development." *Teachers College Record* 80 (1): 36-53.

> This article explains the conceptual structure of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM). It develops the Stages of Concern sequence as a key to successful teacher development. If offers an excellent overview of this significant model and how to apply it.

Hord, Shirley M.; Rutherford, William L.; Huling-Austin, Leslie; and Hall, Gene E. 1987. *Taking Charge of Change*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

> This monograph provides change facilitators with the tools needed to assess individuals involved in the change process. Techniques are also offered to provide those agents with information to support that effort. The monograph offers a powerful message that brings new understanding to successful school change.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan. 1989. "Managing Change: An Integral Part of Staff Development." In *Handbook for Staff Development*, edited by Sally Caldwell. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.

> Staff development and change go hand-in-hand, since the intention of staff development is to change behaviors, attitudes, and skills. One of the many roles of a staff developer is to create the right set of conditions to enable change to occur. This article focuses on the four "Ps" -- people, processes, practices, and policies -- that are critical to the success of change efforts.

Saxl, Ellen R.; Miles, Matthew B.; and Lieberman, Ann. 1989. *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

> The manual is part of a dynamic, multimedia approach to develop change agents' facilitation skills. Rationale, theory, activities, and references are included for six key areas: trust and rapport building, organizational diagnosis, dealing with the process, resource utilization, managing the work, and building the capacity to continue.

CHANGE – Other Resources

Bridges, W. 1980. *Transitions: Making Sense of Life's Changes*. Boston: Addison Wesley.

Fullan, Michael. 1982. *The Meaning of Educational Change*. New York and London: Teachers College Press.

CHANGE – Other Resources (continued)

_________. 1990. "Staff Development, Innovation, and Institutional Development." In *Changing School Culture Through Staff Development*, edited by Bruce Joyce. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hall, Gene E. and Hord, Shirley M. 1987. *Changing Schools: Facilitating the Process*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Havelock, Ron. 1973. *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

Huberman, A. Michael and Miles, Matthew B. 1982. *People, Policies, and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement. Vol. IV: Innovation Up Close: A Field Study in 12 School Settings*. Andover, MA: The NETWORK, Inc.

Huberman, A. Michael and Miles, Matthew B. 1984. *Innovation Up Close: How School Improvement Works*. New York: Plenum Press.

Johnson, David W. and Johnson, Roger T. 1975. *Learning Together and Alone: Cooperation, Competition, and Individualization*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Krupp, Judith Arin. 1989. "Change Begins with the Individual." Address given at the annual conference of the National Council of States on In-service Education, San Antonio, TX.

Lewin, K. 1958. "Group Decision and Social Change." In *Readings in Social Psychology*, 3d ed., edited by R. Maccoby. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Lippitt, Gordon L. 1973. *Visualizing Change: Model Building and the Change Process*. LaJolla, CA: University Associates.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan. January 1991. Presentation to Teacher Induction Working Group of Northeast Common Market Project, Andover, MA.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan and Stiegelbauer, Suzanne. 1991. "Using Knowledge of Change to Guide Staff Development." In *Staff Development for Education in the 90's: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives*, edited by Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller. New York: Teachers College Press.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan and Zacchei, David A. November 1983. "Applying Our Findings to Today's Innovations." *Educational Leadership* 41 (3): 28-31.

McLaughlin, Milbrey W. December 1990. "The Rand Change Agent Study Revisited: Macro Perspectives and Micro Realities." *Educational Researcher* 19 (12): 11-16.

Miles, Matthew B. November 1983. "Unraveling the Mystery of Institutionalization." *Educational Leadership* 41 (3): 14-19.

Rogers, Everett M. 1962. *Diffusion of Innovations*. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.

Van Gennep, Arnold. 1960. *Rites of Passage*. (Translated by Monika B. Vizedom and Gabrielle L. Caffee). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

CHANGE -- Other Resources (continued)

Welch, Lynne Brodie. June 1979. "Planned Change in Nursing." *Nursing Clinics of North America* 14 (2): 307-321.

CHANGE -- Audiovisual Resources

"Making Change for School Improvement: A Simulation Game"

Available from:
The NETWORK/The Regional Laboratory
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
Simulation Game, No. 521 (purchase) = $240.00
Simulation Game, No. 522 (rental) = $75.00

CHANGE -- Needs Assessments

Manthei, Judith. 1990. *Mentor Teacher Preparation Inventory and Guide for Planning and Action.*

Available from:
The Massachusetts Field Center for Teaching and Learning
University of Massachusetts at Boston
Wheatley Hall
Boston, MA 02125
$2.00 postpaid

DIVERSITY -- Selected Print Resources

Beane, James A. and Lipka, Richard P. 1984. *Self-Concept, Self-Esteem, and the Curriculum.* New York: Teachers College Press.

> This resource connects research with practical applications on how schools and classrooms can become centers that enhance and promote the self-esteem of all learners -- children and adults. The authors preface the inquiry with a consideration of how the values communicated by teachers and administrators influence the values of young people attending schools.

Montero-Sieburth, Martha and Perez, Marla E. September 1987. "'Echar Pa'Lante:' Moving Onward: The Dilemmas and Strategies of a Bilingual Teacher." *Anthropology and Education Quarterly* 18 (3): 180-189.

> This article provides a vivid account of the special challenges that a culturally and linguistically different classroom presents. The need for collegial dialogue, a supportive environment, and reflection are evident under these circumstances. A good resource for eliciting dialogue on issues affecting classrooms with recent arrivals and transient populations.

DIVERSITY – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Nine-Curt, C. Judith. 1976. *Non-Verbal Communication.* Cambridge, MA: National Assessment and Dissemination Center for Bilingual Education.

> Misunderstandings stemming from differences in cultural orientations will become easier to identify after reading this handbook. The author analyzes her observations and personal experiences and connects her findings to E.T. Hall's framework of cultural systems, allowing the reader to see himself or herself as cultural bearer and therefore bound by subjectivity when looking at someone else's culture.

Vogel Zanger, Virginia. 1985. *Face to Face, The Cross Cultural Handbook.* Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

> The author presents a collection of activities for teachers of students who are recent guests of American culture. The handbook brings into clear focus aspects of American culture that help foreign students understand and become more familiar with "hidden" cultural aspects.

DIVERSITY – Other Resources

Callahan, Joseph F. and Clark, Leonard L. 1983. *Foundations of Education*, 2d ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Cummins, Jim. February 1986. "Empowering Minority Students: A Framework for Intervention." *Harvard Educational Review* 56 (1): 18-36.

Gay, Geneva. 1989. "Ethnic Minorities and Educational Equality." In *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*, edited by James A. Banks and Cherry A. Banks. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gilbert II, Shirl E. and Gay, Geneva. October 1985. "Improving the Success in School of Poor Black Children." *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (2): 133-137.

Grant, Carl A. and Sleeter, Christine E. Fall 1988. "Race, Class, and Gender and Abandoned Dreams." *Teachers College Record* 90 (1): 19-40.

Haberman, Martin and Post, Linda. 1990. "Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of the Goals of Multicultural Education." *Action in Teacher Education* 12 (3): 31-36.

Hilliard, Asa G. January 1989. "Teachers and Cultural Styles in a Pluralistic Society." *NEA Today* 7 (6): 65-69.

Hodgkinson, Harold L. April 1987. "Today's Curriculum: How Appropriate Will It Be in Year 2000?" *NASSP Bulletin* 71 (498): 2-7.

______________. 1989. *The Same Client: The Demographics of Education and Service Delivery Systems.* Washington, DC: The Institute for Educational Leadership.

Kennedy, Mary M. 1992. *Learning to Teach in a Different Culture.* East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED343 886).

DIVERSITY – Other Resources (continued)

Leung, Esther K. Summer 1990. "Early Risks: Transition from Culturally/Linguistically Diverse Homes to Formal Schooling. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students* 7: 35-51.

Lindsey, Alfred J. July-August 1985. "Consensus or Diversity? A Grave Dilemma in Schooling." *Journal of Teacher Education* 36 (4): 31-36.

Pedersen, A. and Pedersen, Paul B. 1985. "The Cultural Grid: A Personal and Cultural Orientation." In *Intercultural Communication: A Reader*, edited by Larry A. Samovar and Richard E. Porter. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Pedersen, Paul. 1988. *A Handbook for Developing Multicultural Awareness*. Washington, DC: American Association for Counseling and Development.

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 1-A

HOW TO MAKE AN ACTIVITY YOUR OWN: A WORKING CHECKLIST

In order to make the best use of an activity, you need to "make it your own," detailing how it will actually be carried out. An activity may also have to be adapted to particular training situations and to participants' needs. This checklist provides a set of simple steps for proceeding.

1. Read through the activity to be sure you understand how it works.
2. Consider the audience with whom you will be using the activity. What are its probable needs?
3. Decide upon what you are trying to accomplish (your main goals or purposes) with the activity.
4. *Write down* your goals. If working with others, use newsprint or other large-display formats to build the design and guide your work as you go.
5. Begin walking through the steps in the activity. For each step, ask the four questions below. As you proceed, write down what you decide.
   - Shall I keep this or drop it?
   - Shall I revise this? How?
   - Should steps be in a different sequence (for example, conceptual material early rather than late)?
   - Are there "option points" at which I might do something differently depending on how a step goes?
6. Set the amount of time each step will take.
7. REVIEW: Walk through the flow of revised steps. Think of how a participant will feel and react. Does the flow work well or does it need adjustment?
8. Decide who will run each step.
9. Decide what preparation is needed (conceptual inputs, directions for steps, handouts, overheads, newsprint, room setup, etc.) and who will do it.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual* by Ellen R. Saxl with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. (c) 1989, I-18.

APPENDIX 1-B

GUIDE TO FACILITATION

Facilitation is highly complex and particularly significant in the teaching/learning process. When assuming the role of facilitator, there are particular structures, strategies, and dispositions that can contribute to your success. This guide to facilitation will highlight several aspects to consider as you prepare, execute, and evaluate your sessions.

Preparing Your Session

1. Be prepared and know your audience. Ask planners to respond to the statement "This session we are preparing will be valuable if . . . ." By probing planners in this way, you are better able to prepare for what they are intending as learner outcomes for the participants.

2. Establish "ground rules" for group behavior:
   - suspend judgment;
   - think together; and
   - share air time.

3. Review particular instructions necessary for participants to fully understand what is expected.

4. Know your content and be clear about your process.

5. Identify the nature of the facilitator role for the activity you are doing. Some helpful questions to ask are:
   - Is this a brainstorming activity in which it is more important for you to manage the group than to bring your content knowledge?
   - Is this an activity in which your content knowledge is essential in guiding discussion?

6. Consider having advanced organizers, for example, an agenda for the day, process steps, an overview of the activities of the day, and review materials packet to be used.

7. Have materials prepared in advance -- use large font for overheads, preferably six to eight lines of text per overhead.

8. Prepare name tags or ask participants to fill out their own. Ask that first names be printed legibly and in large print.

Qualities of Effective Facilitation

READING THE GROUP accurately is a skill that can significantly enhance the rapport between you and your participants. Anticipating basic needs is a first step in this process. For example, plan for breaks if your session is lengthy and provide food, comfortable chairs, adequate lighting, and a comfortable room temperature. Be prepared to address a variety of learning styles. Allow participants adequate wait time. It will often take participants five seconds or more to process the question, or synthesize the ideas on the table, before they are ready to respond. This extra

gift of "thinking time" is an effective strategy in soliciting optimal group involvement. Be familiar with group dynamics. For example, the four stages of group development are forming, norming, storming, and performing. Be aware of "group think," an excessive tendency to maintain "group cohesiveness" at the cost of critical thinking and risk taking. Remember the significance of silence as a voice of the group. In cases in which silence is spoken loudly, you may want to ask the question, "Does anyone have any thought, question, or concern they would like to put on the table at this point?"

CLARIFYING what someone has said is helpful to ensure common understanding and decrease the possibility of unnecessary conflict. Paraphrasing or checking for accuracy can help participants clarify their intentions and let them know that you hear them accurately.

PROBING for specificity is a skill that facilitators can employ to help move individuals, or groups, from a position of "feeling stuck" to one of new understanding or enlightenment. By asking certain kinds of questions, a facilitator can coach a reflective process that often invites discovery and clarity. Examples of this type of question would include:

- What would that look like?
- How is what you've just said different from this other idea?
- Could you expand that further?

DEPERSONALIZING CONFLICT is a requirement of impartial facilitation. When working with diverse groups, the personality, tone, or learning style needs of participants may cloud your perceptions and attitudes as the facilitator. It is essential that you focus on the problem, not the person, when responding to difficult issues regarding facilitating groups. At the same time, it is often necessary to give difficult feedback. For instance, if group behaviors like blocking, sabotaging, excessive humor, or monopolizing are occurring, you may need to step into the role of process observer and provide the group with specific data that identifies the unproductive behavior. If you are "stepping out" of your facilitator role for any reason, it is important to announce what it is you are doing and why, i.e., you may shift to a process observer role to provide the group with needed feedback. In any case, always attempt to remove your own ego from the conflict. As facilitator, you need to remain impartial in resolving controversy. Chapter 3 discusses conflict resolution in greater detail and recommends several resources on the topic.

BRACKETING is a technique that allows questions, comments, and ideas to be validated, while at the same time, allows the group to move forward. For example, if an issue is raised that is important to the group, yet unrelated to its present task, you could record the issue or topic on newsprint, place it within brackets [ ], and indicate that this is an important issue the group may have to return to at a later time. It is also important to include bracketed information in the minutes. This technique provides you with one way to keep a group on task, while inviting a disposition for critical inquiry.

VALUING each person's contributions will enhance group development by giving personal meaning to each member's participation. There are several ways you may do this, for example:

- Give a person positive feedback for a comment, for example, "That's a really good suggestion."
- Bring back into the conversation a comment made previously that would otherwise be overlooked. It is also helpful if, in doing so, you are able to make connections to the current conversation.

- Provide a visual focus point for the meeting's progress. Newsprint is a wonderful facilitation tool in this regard. Not only will it allow participants to see what they've talked about, but it is also a good way to review decisions that have already been made.
- Check with participants to make sure that what you record on newsprint accurately reflects what they said. Try to use the exact language or phrases used by participants as much as possible.

Tools of Facilitation

It is a good idea to have a "kit of tools" prepared and take them with you whenever you facilitate. Regardless of what others have agreed to prepare for you, Murphy's Law often rings true when it comes to having exactly what you need as you begin to facilitate your session. Helpful tools to include in your facilitator kit are:

A variety of colored markers
Overhead pens
Masking tape
Timer (for example, stopwatch)
Pushpins
Paper clips
Name tags
Rubber bands
Post-it notes
Blank overheads
Business cards
Copies of your favorite anecdotes, stories, and jokes

Optional tools:

Portable easel
Audiotape recorder

A Framework for Effective Meetings

- Have an agenda or "build one" at the beginning of the session.
- Record highlights, decisions, "report out" information, and bracketed information on newsprint and use this information to create a set of minutes of the session.
- Provide a copy of the minutes to each participant.
- Be prepared to change your facilitator role to one of process observer if feedback is needed regarding group behavior.
- Provide participants with an opportunity to give you feedback about their experience during the session.

Evaluating Your Session

There are several methods for assessing how effective, meaningful, and valuable your session was for participants. Chapter 4 provides a more detailed review of methodologies; however, the following examples may also be helpful in selecting a method of assessment that is appropriate for your needs.

Likert-Type Scale

This method of assessment provides a numerical evaluation of your session. Typically you would ask participants to rate your session around several areas on a scale of one to five. The following provides an example:

Today's session was:

Not Productive				**Very Productive**
1	2	3	4	5

Not Informative				**Very Informative**
1	2	3	4	5

Not Well Organized				**Very Organized**
1	2	3	4	5

Open-Ended Assessment

This method of assessment provides for a more continual assessment strategy. It is especially useful if you are working with a particular group over time, since the responses can help inform what a particular group of learners will need next and will provide you with feedback about whether or not their expectations were met. One method is to use an 8.5" x 11" sheet of paper and label the top of each of four quadrants with the following open-ended statements:

I came expecting . . .

I got . . .

I value . . .

Next I need . . .

Journal Entries

Once again, if you are working with a group over time, excerpts from individual journal entries which speak to individual appraisal around the use of an innovation, perceptions, or attitudes can be extremely helpful in accurately identifying the concerns of a given group of learners. In doing so, you are better able to prepare for any subsequent sessions. If you are considering using this method, make it clear to participants that this will occur and agree ahead of time how the journals will be used (or not used) and who will be reading them. Trust can prove to be a major issue in the effective use of this method.

Assessment and Celebration

As a culminating activity, especially after working with a particular group over several sessions, a large-group "free expression" can provide feedback while also creating a community celebration. First, roll out a long strip of paper from a newsprint roll (you can usually get these from local newspapers). The length of the sheet should allow for adequate space for all participants to express themselves. Scatter assorted colored markers along the sheet on the floor. Ask participants to respond to the question, "How meaningful/valuable has this experience been for me?" Participants may choose to express themselves in writing or with some other creative art form. After they have completed the task, display the length of newsprint in a common area, i.e., a school or classroom, as it offers a reminder of the celebration.

Quick Feedback

Many activities require participants to read new materials, participate in a new process, or experience a different workshop structure. If you find it necessary, or interesting, to gain quick feedback, there are two methods that can provide you with quick access to participant perceptions. Immediately following the activity in question, ask participants to give you a thumbs-up if they thought the activity was very good, interesting, or helpful; a thumbs-down if it was not good, not interesting, or not helpful; and a thumbs-parallel if they were middle of the road about the activity. When doing a jigsaw activity in which participants are reading a variety of articles and readings, this method can provide you with helpful feedback about the relevance of the material selected. A second method is to ask participants to record on 3" x 5" cards one recommendation and one commendation. This method works best if you use one color card for recommendations and another color for commendations.

Parting Thoughts

- Be prepared.
- Know your audience.
- Demonstrate a sense of humor -- have fun.
- Use appropriate tone of voice and body language. Fifty-five percent of your message depends on body language, thirty-eight percent on tone of voice, and seven percent on the words you choose.
- Celebrate the "ah-has."
- Embrace participants' ideas and interests.
- Remember the ground rules and be ready to shift into other roles as needed by the group.

APPENDIX 1-C

GENERIC JIGSAW EXERCISE

Purpose(s): To acquaint participants with the jigsaw activity

Materials: Articles, books, etc. -- varied according to content of training topic, overhead entitled "Jigsaw Exercise," overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easels, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity provides a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about the topic that has been selected. It extends knowledge and stimulates good collegial thinking and discussion. This experiential learning activity draws on the knowledge participants bring to the activity, promotes shared responsibility for learning, provides new feelings of expertise, and shifts the status of expert from trainer to learner.

A range of readings should be selected, the criteria of which should include:

- diversity of findings and points of view;
- understandable language;
- diversity of sources (i.e., journals) and researchers; and
- similarity in length.

Diversity is particularly important. Collectively, the articles should heighten participants' understanding of the scope of the topic and expand their vision of what it can and should be.

If at all possible, the articles should be assigned and distributed in advance to allow for more thoughtful reading. Group time should then be shortened and devoted to discussion with peer "experts."

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of the activity. Explain what a jigsaw is. The jigsaw activity is a cooperative-learning strategy that allows participants to become experts in a particular aspect of the topic and then to teach that aspect to others in the group. The advantage of using the jigsaw is that it provides a good way for participants to learn new content and to reinforce that learning by teaching the content to others.

Sources: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-7 to 2-10.

Adapted with permission of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development from *Human Resource Development Program Handbook: A Practical Guide for Staff Developers* by Cerylle A. Moffett and Cynthia L. Warger. (c) 1988.

Have participants divide into home groups. In a common variation of the activity, you will assign each member of the home group a different article on a common topic. Then, have the home groups split into new groups -- expert groups consisting of all those who were assigned a common article. In the expert groups, have members discuss what they've read, highlight major points, cite examples, and discuss how they will teach the material to their home group. After a designated period of time, have the home group reconvene, with each member teaching the rest of the group what he or she has learned.

The overhead "Jigsaw Exercise" illustrates the structure and sequence of the jigsaw activity. In this example, there are four home groups of four members each. Assign each group member a number from one to four. Have all the "ones" form a new expert group; all the "twos" do the same, and so on. Have the expert groups meet and discuss the reading. Then have them return to their original home group to share their learnings and discuss implications for their work.

2. Have participants form home groups of four (see overhead).

3. Assign a different article to each person in a group or have them self-select.

4. Have participants read independently.

5. Then, have them form homogeneous or expert groups of readers for each article. Discuss and identify:

    - major ideas the author(s) presents;
    - the most significant points; and
    - experiences which support or refute the points presented in the article.

    Have participants develop a one-page "crib sheet" (a summary or visual of key points) to use when they "teach" their peers in their home groups.

6. Have them return to home groups. Ask experts to teach their peers about their article. Then, have them discuss similarities and dissimilarities.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

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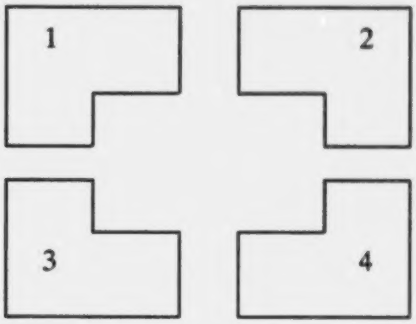
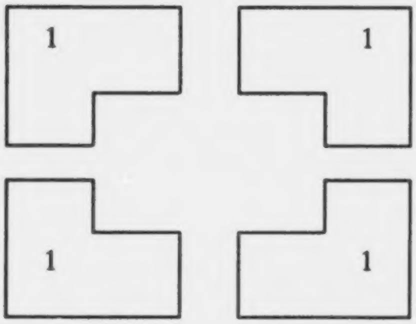
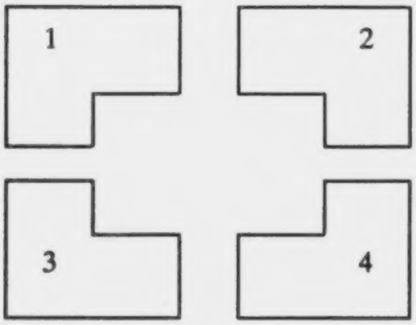
JIGSAW EXERCISE



1. HOME GROUP



2. EXPERT GROUP



3. HOME GROUP

Sources: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-7 to 2-10.

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APPENDIX 1-D

PROMOTING CONSTRUCTIVE RESOLUTION OF CONTROVERSY

Purpose(s): To engage participants in a constructive approach to resolving controversy and arriving at consensus in collective decision making

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity may be done with as few as three or four participants, but the optimum size is 14 to 16. Ideally, two trainers would conduct the activity.

One trainer presents half of the group with a discussion topic in which individuals must, using role play, advocate for or against a particular position and arrive at a recommendation within a specified time. Subjects for discussion could include:

- the initiation of an outstanding teacher-of-the-year award for the school;
- the need to identify mentor teachers and begin a mentoring program;
- curriculum materials;
- specific teaching approaches to be implemented; or
- the school's personnel evaluation tools.

The other trainer instructs the other half of the group on observation and feedback skills for use during the role play. Observers use a checklist to provide feedback to all the role play participants at the end of the role play.

Process/Steps:

1. Share the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy."
2. Divide the participants into two groups: role play participants and observers. Each participant has an observer assigned to him or her throughout the activity.
3. Have each trainer instruct the members of his or her respective group on their responsibilities as participants throughout the activity.
    a. Each participant must advocate for his or her position, but a group recommendation must be arrived at within 15 minutes.
    b. Use of the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy" as an observer checklist is explained. Each observer will be responsible for recording the behaviors of one of the participants by using the checklist, and for providing feedback at the end of the activity.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, 2d ed., by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson. (c) 1982.

4. Have participants carry out role play and observation.
5. Have observers give feedback to participants on an individual basis.
6. Then, have all participants share their perceptions of the process with the entire group.

Time Required: 60 minutes

RULES FOR CONSTRUCTIVE CONTROVERSY

1. Focus on achieving the group's goal -- not dominating the group.
2. Take active part in group discussions.
3. Value, respect, and take seriously everyone's contribution.
4. Use good sending and receiving skills.
5. Be critical of ideas, not of individuals.
6. Strive to understand the position and frame of reference of those with whom you disagree.
7. Don't take personally other member's disagreements and rejection of your ideas.
8. Bring out differences of opinion and then combine several positions into a creative position.
9. Argue rationally -- generate ideas, organize reason, draw conclusions.
10. Evaluate contributions based on soundness, not on who proposed them.

In Constructive Controversy:

- Relationships among group members are stronger.
- Group members like and trust each other more.
- All members of a group are satisfied with the results of the conflict.
- All members of a group have improved their ability to resolve future conflicts with one another.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, 2d ed., by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson. (c) 1982.

APPENDIX 1-E

APPROACHES TO DECISION MAKING

Establishing a mentoring program demands a series of decisions, from establishing goals for change through selecting appropriate strategies, activities, timing, and responsibilities. Individuals are more likely to support a decision in which they have played a part -- a factor that underscores the importance of the entire problem-solving process.

Although it is often difficult to achieve an agreed-upon decision (because group members lean heavily toward the solutions they propose), it is crucial for participants to realize that avoiding a decision is, in fact, a decision -- a choice *not* to move forward or change the status quo. Sound decisions are precursors to productive action -- the crux of effective school change.

Mentor trainers can help groups make decisions in several ways. Group decisions are sometimes made by **individuals** or **subgroups** who push through a decision, relying on the passivity of the other participants. This is particularly likely to happen when a group begins meeting and either the principal or a group of informal leaders takes charge of the decision-making process. Trainers can confront that pattern of decision making by commenting on its frequency and questioning whether all opinions are being taken into consideration.

Other decision-making methods include:

> **Majority vote:** More than half the group members agree on a single choice. A major drawback is that those who voted against the decision may not be committed to its implementation.
>
> **Unanimous vote:** All group members agree. Problems may arise because some people who feel the pressure to agree may not really support the decision, and because one person can block the decision by disagreeing.
>
> **Consensus:** Internal discussions and polls take place to find common points of agreement. In the course of trying to reach consensus, group members suggest modifications to the original proposal that may be acceptable to others, resulting in a genuine agreement to implement the revised decision. This method, although time-consuming, is most appropriate when important policy decisions are being made.

Many believe that decisions made by consensus are of higher quality than those arrived at through other forms of decision making. Consensus is a collective opinion arrived at by a group whose members have listened carefully to the opinions of others, have communicated openly, and have been able to state their opposition to other members' views and seek alternatives in a constructive manner. When a decision is made by consensus, all members -- because they have had the opportunity to influence it -- should feel they understand the decision and can support it.

Johnson and Johnson (1975) provide the following guidelines for consensual decision making:

1. Avoid blindly arguing for your own individual judgments. Present your position as clearly and logically as possible, but listen to other members' reactions and consider them carefully before you press your point.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual* by Ellen R. Saxl with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. (c) 1989.

2. Avoid changing your mind *only* to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions to which you are at least somewhat agreeable. Yield only to positions that have objective and logically sound foundations.

3. Avoid "conflict-reducing" procedures such as majority vote, tossing a coin, averaging, or bargaining in reaching decisions.

4. Seek out differences of opinion; they are natural and expected. Try to involve everyone in the decision process. Disagreements can help the group's decision because they present a wide range of information and opinions, thereby creating a better chance for the group to hit upon more adequate solutions.

5. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose when discussion reaches a stalemate. Instead, look for the next most acceptable alternative for all members.

6. Discuss underlying assumptions, listen carefully to one another, and encourage the participation of all members.

In consensus decision making, all group members must participate actively and they must feel that all opinions expressed are considered equally, regardless of individual role designations. According to Johnson and Johnson (1975):

> Decisions by consensus take a great deal of time and member motivation and will often prove frustrating to designated leaders. But in terms of the future ability of the group to make high-quality decisions, consensus productively resolves controversies and conflicts -- which majority vote, minority rule, and all other methods of decision making do not. Research shows that the more effective groups tend to have designated leaders who allow greater participation, more differences of opinions to be expressed, and greater acceptance of different decisions (Torrance 1957). Effective leaders have been shown to encourage minority opinions and conflict to a greater extent than less effective leaders (Maier and Solem 1952). Group members with little influence over a decision not only fail to contribute their resources to it, but usually are less likely to carry it out when action is required (Coch and French 1948).

The handout "General Types of Group Decisions" illustrates the relationship among numbers of people involved in decision making, type of decision-making method, and amount of time needed.

Trainers can encourage participants to reflect on the decision-making process by asking questions like the following:

1. What techniques are generally used to make decisions?

2. Why are some decision-making approaches more appropriate than others?

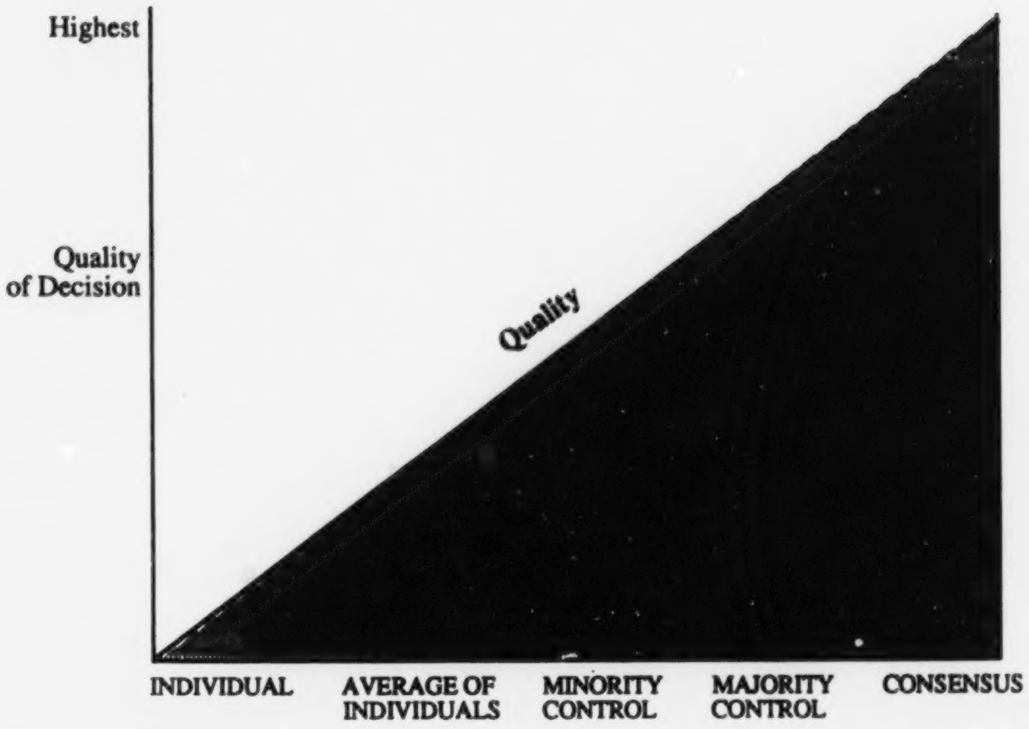
3. Do all participants feel that their contributions are valued and that they have the opportunity to influence the final decision?

4. Is enough time allocated for serious decision making?

5. Is there an acceptable way to give feedback and evaluate group decisions?

Through these and other questions, trainers can strengthen decision-making processes, support active participation by all participants, intervene when appropriate, and sensitively comment on the process of a group.

GENERAL TYPES OF GROUP DECISIONS



Source: Reprinted with permission of the authors from *Learning Together and Alone: Cooperation, Competition, and Individualization* by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson. (c) 1975, 106.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

APPENDIX 1-F

THE NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

The nominal group process is a method for structuring groups whereby individual judgments are pooled and used when there is uncertainty or disagreement about the nature of the problem and possible solutions. The process is helpful in identifying problems, exploring solutions, and establishing priorities. It works best with groups of five to nine participants. Larger groups can be handled by making minor changes in procedure, particularly in Step 2, but any group larger than 12 should be subdivided.

Nominal Group Process Procedures

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing.

Read the focus question aloud and ask participants to list their responses in phrases or brief sentences. Request that they work silently and independently. Allow four to eight minutes.

Step 2: Round-robin recording of ideas.

Go around the table and get one idea from each participant. Write the ideas on newsprint. As each sheet is finished, tape it on the wall so that the entire list is visible. Number each item. Leave space to the left of each number to record votes at a later time. Encourage hitchhiking on other ideas. Discourage discussion, elaboration, or justification.

Step 3: Serial discussion of the list of ideas.

Clarification: Explain that the purpose of this step is clarification. Read item 1 aloud and invite clarifying comments. Then, read item 2 and continue discussing each item in turn until the list is covered. Arguments are unnecessary because each participant will have a chance to vote independently in Step 4. As soon as the logic and meaning of the items are clear, cut off discussion.

Categorization: Once each item has been discussed, duplicate items should be identified and combined. This may necessitate rewriting some of the items before the voting step. However, resist the temptation to combine *many* items into broader categories. Some participants may seek to achieve consensus by this means and the precision of the original items may be lost, or the combined item will become so abstract and all-inclusive that the group is able to avoid the difficult choices inherent in prioritizing.

Source: Adapted with permission of Sage Publications from *Group Techniques for Idea Building* by Carl M. Moore. (c) 1987.

Adapted with permission from The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-38.

Step 4: Voting.

Have each participant select five items that are most important to him or her, write them down, and then rank order them (1=*least* important; 5=*most* important). Record the priority numbers on newsprint in front of the group. The numbers are then added, resulting in a total for each item. Items can then be prioritized -- those items with the highest numbers are considered the highest priority. Have the group discuss the voting patterns. If desired, the items can be further clarified and a second vote taken.

Lieberman, A. 1986. "Collaborative Research: Working With, Not Working On..." Educational Leadership, 43 (5): 28-32. Reprinted with permission of ASCD. (c) ASCD.

Collaborative Research: Working With, Not Working On . . .

ANN LIEBERMAN

Regardless of the context, team deliberation has been shown to produce knowledge and self-learning for teachers, provide powerful professional development, and encourage greater collegial interaction.

In the late 1940s, Stephen Corey wrote about how Teachers College professors worked with school districts to help them improve various school practices. The range of problems was broad: sometimes it was how to run a better faculty meeting, sometimes how to be a better leader. Corey and his colleagues had been influenced by Lewin's early work at Michigan, in which he dealt with the importance of group work in both educating and helping solve social problems (Corey 1953, Lewin 1948). Some of Corey's interests were shaped by his belief that self-learning was a powerful concept and that through problem solving, college people could help teachers better conceptualize their problems.

The influence of this early work has continued, although it is undervalued in the university because of an elitist view that values the problems and descriptions of researchers over those of practitioners. However, the recent rise of interest in qualitative methodologies has brought increasing attention to viewing schools as complex organizations and teaching as a complex activity. A "working with posture rather than a working on" (Ward and Tikunoff 1982) has become the cornerstone of a variety of collaborations with teachers and principals to produce research knowledge and professional development as a combined strategy.

Interactive Research and Development on Teaching

In 1976 Tikunoff, Ward, and Griffin began a study of two teams consisting of four teachers, a researcher, and a staff developer. One team was located in an urban area and one in a rural area. Their study yielded six features important in interactive research.

1. The team minimally includes a teacher, a researcher, and a staff developer.
2. Decisions regarding research questions, data collection, and materials development are collaborative.
3. Problems emerge from the team's mutual concerns and inquiries and, above all, attend to teachers' definitions of their problems.
4. The team attends to both research and development concerns, giving attention from the beginning to both knowledge production and use.
5. The research and development effort attends to the complexity of the classroom and maintains its integrity.
6. The research and development is recognized and used as an intervention (a professional development strategy), while rigorous—as well as useful—research and development are carried out.

Although both teams were not completely successful in producing both rigorous and useful research and development, important learnings about collaboration and teaching emerged, and some difficult questions were raised. What does the researcher need to know in order to be involved in collaborative research? How does one break down the continuing problem of communication between researcher and teacher? What teaching problems are researchable? Can different people assume the role of researcher on a collaborative team? Should there be some prerequisite conditions in a school or district before collaboration is possible?

Learnings from "Doing Research"

The team of urban teachers in the Tikunoff study, in framing their research question, responded to a district mandate to increase student time-on-task. The team's research focused on the disruptions that prevented teachers from providing more time-on-task and on coping techniques to deal with them. The details of the team's work are printed elsewhere (see Tikunoff et al. 1979). For our purposes, the significance of the study lies in the kind of question that teachers asked (one that is sensitive to their problems in the classroom) and, in this case, what learning resulted from both the process and the products of the team's deliberation.

Initially the team members were convinced that outside disruptions were keeping them from doing a better job. The principal and others were constantly using the loudspeaker, parents interrupted the classroom, and students were pulled out, disrupting the flow of work. In short, the teachers' expectations were framed by the teacher folklore adage, "If only they would let us teach. . . ."

The results of their research revealed, however, that there were several categories of disruption—teacher, student, outside, and physical. The most surprising finding was that most of the disruptions came from *within the classroom*. These categories of disruption (see Tikunoff et al. 1979) revealed important distinctions about disruptions and the flow of instruction (see Harrison 1982 for additional research on disruptions). The teachers discovered, too, that they differed in how they coped with disruptions. Some of the coping skills were held in common; others were not. Some of the teachers had a wide array of coping techniques; others had few.

The teachers in this team learned what no professional development workshop could have taught them—that classroom disruptions were primarily *inside* the classroom, that some were caused by the teachers themselves, that some are amenable to change, that some cannot be avoided, and that classroom disruptions are more complex than they had thought. They also learned that some teachers had a limited repertoire of coping strategies and that they could expand their techniques by learning from their peers and by intervening in their own classrooms. Stephen Corey would have loved this team. There was a tremendous amount of self-learning.

Through working with a researcher and a staff developer, these teachers engaged in "doing research" that concerned them and in "doing development" on their own behalf. Eventually they taught the process to other teachers in the district. Teachers learned to collect information, interpret it, and weigh competing interpretations of the practical problem they started with. Both the process of doing research and the products that resulted provided important learnings for all team members.

Interactive Research and Development on Schooling

Building on the Tikunoff study and many of the questions it raised, Griffin, Lieberman, and Noto (1982) organized three teams in the New York area to conduct interactive research and development on schooling. We wanted to extend the possibility that there might be school problems as well as teacher problems that a team could work on. In addition, we had a hunch that there were other people who could play the roles of researcher and staff developer. But we also wanted to be convinced that such a strategy could work in different contexts and still produce knowledge and provide for professional development.

"Different people can play the role of researcher and staff developer, but well-meaning administrators have difficulty sustaining a long-term interest because of their competing agendas."

We had successes and failures, improved on previous studies in some ways, made new mistakes, and raised new questions. We added new lore to previous studies when we found that:

1. Different people can play the role of researcher and staff developer (e.g., graduate student, administrator, consultant), but well-meaning administrators have difficulty sustaining a long-term interest because of their competing agendas.

2. Collaborative research can indeed be accomplished in a variety of contexts.

3. Regardless of the context, collaborative research can provide professional development.

4. All kinds of issues and problems appear to be of interest and concern for collaborative research; in the case of these three teams: curricular concerns (How do students learn to write?), instructional concerns (What programs are most helpful in dealing with disruptive students?), and larger professional concerns (What are the factors that enable some teachers to maintain positive attitudes about their jobs?).

5. Collaborative research carried out in a district using district personnel appears to have a greater chance of being institutionalized than other contexts studied to date.

6. Context appears to play a major role in the types of questions teachers raise for study in collaborative teams.

Because we were working in three different contexts (a school district, an intermediate agency, and a teacher center consortium), and because our geographic area was more circumscribed than in the Tikunoff study, we were able to closely observe the dynamics. We asked new questions like: What does a team need (and in what forms) to keep it going over the rough times? How much time is "enough time" to do collaborative research? What role do money and less tangible rewards play in the collaborative process for teachers? What accounts for the differing commitments and contributions of the members of the team? What mechanisms can be found to negotiate differences in the norms of colleges and universities and those of schools? (Are well-meaning, open people enough?) What kind of documents are needed to keep the team on-task and maintain adequate records of accomplishments? How can the status differences between researchers and teachers be broken down so that each group can use what they know and achieve mutual respect? What kinds of knowledge, skills, and abilities does the researcher need to work most effectively on a collaborative team?

One team in this study—a group of five teacher specialists, a graduate student who was also a staff developer, and a university professor who was a researcher—was of special interest. The specialists (teachers who ran teacher centers in a large metropolis) responded strongly to the press and other public claims that teachers were burned out. In their work they saw many teachers who were working hard, achieving results, and feeling positive about their teaching. But "burnout," they feared, was such a negative phenomenon that recovery and renewal were almost impossible. Thus, their research question became: What factors enable some teachers to maintain positive attitudes about their jobs? They felt this was researchable and would provide good strategies for helping others to maintain positive attitudes. They learned that four subthemes were mentioned in about 60 percent of the interviews with positive teachers. Teachers maintained their positive attitudes by having:

- freedom to be creative and innovative,
- the capacity to influence students,
- opportunities for feedback, recognition, and support from adults, and
- opportunities to share with peers.

More specifically, they learned that the major factors that kept teachers positive were *students* (enjoyment of interacting and influencing them); *adults* (reinforcement, recognition, and respect from administrators, teachers, and staff); *personal characteristics* (pride in being a teacher and viewing teaching as a challenge); *curriculum* (freedom and resources to experiment and be creative); and *setting* (a match between teachers' values and demands of the particular school and grade placement). (See Teachers Center Team 1982.) In order to provide for development of others, these positive teachers interviewed other positive teachers. The old and the new interviewees, along with the original team members, then met to code, sort, interpret, and discuss the information. Eleven schools planned agendas to help increase positive attitudes in their school.

Learnings about Teaching, Teachers, and Collaboration

In the initial discussions, this team experienced outstanding brainstorming sessions in which the team members examined why they thought some teachers, in spite of difficult working conditions, still appeared to have a strong sense of control. Discussions about power and control led to other theories about whether these teachers had personality traits different from other teachers who were more easily discouraged. Initially the team sorted the teachers into three groups:

- teachers who feel powerful and take control, regardless of the situation,
- teachers who might take more control under certain conditions, and
- teachers who have no interest in taking control.

Their speculations led them to identify certain conditions that might lead to differences among teachers, such as

The Benefits of Teacher Collaboration Teams for Research and Development

- Collaborative research and development creates a structure for teachers that facilitates reflection and action on the messiness of teaching and schooling problems.
- The team unites teachers and encourages collegial interaction. It has the potential for encouraging greater professional talk and action related to teaching, learning, and school problems.
- Both the process of group interaction and the content of what is learned narrows the gap between "doing research" and "implementing research findings." The research question and the collection of evidence runs concurrently with plans for development of other teachers.
- Naturally occurring problems that teachers have in their schools may lend themselves better to this type of research and development than large-scale funded research, as it can respect the time lines of the school people rather than the research grant.
- A collaborative team provides possibilities for teachers to assume new roles and exhibit leadership. Feelings of powerlessness can be transformed into a greater sense of empowerment.
- Collaborative research legitimates teachers' practical understanding and their definition of problems for both research *and* professional development.

"Both the process of team deliberation and the content of their work produced organizational change in one of the biggest problems in high schools today."

leadership of the principal, class assignments, existence of support groups, availability of supplies, and the physical plant. In examining the literature, they found few studies that offered positive or long-range strategies to help professionals regain their commitment to teaching. Along the way the three groups were dropped because the team found they didn't hold up. Teachers also learned that positive factors could not be solely related to personality, that other factors could account for their positiveness. The slogan for the team became the three Rs for teachers—Recognition, Reinforcement, and Respect—a slogan that could be realized through professional development.

An Alternative to Burnout

By focusing on positive attitudes rather than on stress and burnout, this team opened up a new approach to the study of teachers. Both the interviews with other teachers and the interactive process provided rich data. The findings supported previous research indicating the primacy of rewards teachers gain from students, but they also produced a new area for research—the effect of adults on teachers' positive views of themselves and their attitude toward their work. The three Rs need further work. What needs to happen in a school to provide for these norms for teachers? Are these findings generalizable to other settings? What other factors help teachers remain positive about their work despite difficult circumstances? What teacher-initiated strategies for professional development work? What kinds of conditions are needed to sustain collaborative work?

The Interactive Process

This team's experiences illustrated once again that the research and development process not only can produce knowledge, but can provide for professional development as well. This team, in interviewing other positive teachers, felt positive about doing research and found their interactions with other positive teachers to be professionally uplifting. The confidence the team members felt in being "researchers" and the faith they bestowed on "positive teachers," who in turn became "researchers" and interviewed a second set of teachers in their school, spread the norm of the three Rs.

The process the team used was an interesting one. Initially all team members felt knowledgeable about teachers and professional development. The teacher specialists, in particular, felt that most research from the university was of little use to teachers. But they were unaware of the time and skills such research required even when the teachers themselves created the questions. In addition, the specialists initially were impatient with the process of data analysis and uncomfortable—sometimes defensive—about their lack of research knowledge. (This was so even though the researcher and the developer showed patience and sensitivity to them). In addition, issues of parity brought conflict to the team. These issues were exacerbated since the researcher and the developer were getting paid and the specialists were not. This conflict ran deep, but it did not take away the tremendous desire of the team members to finish their study. In the end, the interactive process included all the team members working on every part of the study. In spite of the conflict, they developed pride in their work as researchers and as contributors to the continuing professional development of teachers.

Local Problem Solving: An Extension of Interactive R&D

One might get the idea that large-scale, heavily funded research is the only way to conduct collaborative research. But many examples show that this is not so.

In a project reported by Huling-Austin (1981), Texas Tech University organized interactive teams involving local teachers, researchers from the College of Education faculty, and staff developers from the Texas Tech University Teacher Corps project. Six teams participated in collaborative research. The experimental group demonstrated greater changes in both the concerns about the use of research findings and practices as well as more skills in research-teaching and development than did the control group.

In another study (Lieberman and Miller 1984), an assistant superintendent of a Midwest high school decided to do something about teachers' constant complaints that they were not backed up by administrators. They felt that administrators weren't tough enough or consistent and never really listened to teachers' complaints. In fact, teachers had been told for a long time to stop whining and improve their instruction. The administrator formed a group and initiated interactive research and development.

This collaborative process yielded a method for reflection and action. The teachers' definition of the problem was respected for the first time. A structure for cooperation was formed: the team. Evidence was collected: students cut class before school and after lunch and roamed the halls before most classes. Together the teachers formed a strategy: to be present in the halls and gently encourage the students to go to their classes. Everyone in the school was involved: students printed a story about the team in the school newspaper; administrators and teachers worked together. Teachers received the kind of attention from administrators they had been asking for. Students received unexpected attention from teachers. And high expectations for attendance were built collectively.

Again, the content of their deliberations and the process they used unlocked a sense of authority that teachers felt had long been eroding. But more than that, teachers felt support from the administration rather than blame. They built a sense of colleagueship among themselves. Both the process of team deliberation and the content of their work produced organizational change in one of the biggest problems in high schools today.

"A collaborative team provides possibilities for teachers to assume new roles and exhibit leadership."

The Power of Collaboration

We are learning that collaborative research has great potential for producing knowledge when teachers define the problems of their work. Their definitions are rooted in the complexities of practice. They may arise from curriculum problems, instructional problems, or the social problems of schools in a complex society. We are also learning that participation in the process as a member of a collaborative research team is a powerful means for teachers to establish greater collegial relations with other teachers.☐

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Collaborative Action Research

Introduction

During the past forty years, collaborative action research has been adopted, rejected, modified and revived as a way of meeting the investigative needs of the educational community. Action research, a term first used in the 1940s by Kurt Lewin, implies the application of tools and methods of social science to immediate, practical problems, with the goals of contributing to theory and knowledge in the field of education and improving practice in schools (Kemmis, 1980). Collaborative action research suggests that each group represented in the process shares in the planning, implementation, and analysis of the research and that each contributes different expertise and a unique perspective. Today's collaborators often include school district personnel, university faculty or educational research and development center staff and national education agencies which provide financial support and guidance.

Action research projects have three general aims: staff development, improved school practice and the modification and elaboration of theories of teaching and learning. Staff development through action research may take a number of forms, including increased teacher understanding of the classroom and school (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Grundy and Kemmis, 1982; Nixon, 1981); increased self-esteem resulting from active involvement in research, professional conferences, and perhaps publication (Elliott, 1985; McCutcheon, 1981; Sheard, 1981) and greater feelings of competence in solving problems and making decisions related to teaching and learning. Improved practice results from practitioner participation in the investigation of actions and issues of immediate importance. Contributions to educational theory include the discovery and elaboration of theoretical frameworks underlying teacher practice (Carr and Kemmis, 1986) and the development of theory grounded in the realities of the school and generalizable to other educational contexts. Although not every project aims at or meets all of these goals, most include elements of all three.

This chapter presents an historical overview of the use of action research in education and examines the basic assumptions, expectations, and conditions which continue to characterize collaborative action research today. In so doing, it suggests a basis for examining both the processes and outcomes of specific projects and a guide for developing effective action research studies.

Collaborative Action Research: History

In the early 1940s Kurt Lewin used the term action research to describe research which united the experimental approach of social science with programs of social action to address major social issues (Ebbutt, 1985; Kemmis, 1980). Lewin, an American social psychologist, believed that social problems should serve as the impulse for social inquiry. From the research which followed, theory would emerge, and necessary social change would be achieved.

Lewin suggested that action research could take two forms: (i) comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action; and (ii) research that responded to a particular social conflict and led directly to social action. In either case, 'Research that produces nothing but books will not suffice' (Lewin, 1948, p. 203). Kemmis (1980) summarized Lewin's goals for action research as follows:

> Knowledge (theory) about social action could develop from observation of the effects of action in context: simultaneously, social needs and aspirations might be met because action programs were aimed at addressing them directly (as action not as principles which might later be applied in action). (p. 15)

Kemmis (*ibid*) suggests that Lewin's adoption of methods of action research stemmed in part from a growing awareness after World War II of significant social problems, including prejudice, authoritarianism, and industrialization. Much of Lewin's early work focused on helping minorities address psychological and social problems caused by prejudice. External consultants worked with community groups to develop and implement change experiments that would help individuals and the community understand and address their biases.

Lewin challenged the traditional role of social scientists, who he felt needed to address these problems directly: 'Socially, it does not suffice that university organizations produce scientific insights' (Lewin, 1948, p. 206). In order to understand and change social practice, social scientists had to include practitioners from the social world under investigation in all phases of their research. Practitioners had to understand that only through the use of the social sciences could they 'hope to gain the power necessary to do a good job' (*ibid*, p. 213). By working together, social scientists and practitioners could discover new theory and take action which addressed important social concerns.

Chein, Cook and Harding (1948) described action research in its early stages, noting the unification of theory and practice through the interaction of practitioner and social scientist:

> (Action research) is a field which developed to satisfy the needs of the sociopolitical individual who recognizes that, in science, he can find the most reliable guide to effective action, and the needs of the scientist who wants his labors to be of maximal social utility as well as of theoretical significance. (p. 44)

The action researcher studied problems which grew out of the community, rather than his or her own knowledge, and worked to make discoveries which could be applied in the community setting.

Practitioners had to be involved in action research not only to use the tools of social science in addressing their concerns, but also because their participation would make them more aware of the need for the action program chosen, and more personally invested in the process of change (*ibid*). Lewin advocated the incorporation of group work into the research process because of the power of group interaction in producing commitment and change in attitude and behavior (Kemmis, 1980; Lewin, 1952). Chein, Cook and Harding (1948) suggested that when practitioners were involved in all phases of the research, the degree of precision of the research findings was less important than the appropriate direction of the resulting action or change. Lewin (1948), however, insisted that action research involving practitioners was as scientifically valid as any other:

> This by no means implies that the research needed is in any respect less scientific or 'lower' than what would be required for pure science in the field of social events. I am inclined to hold the opposite to be true. (p. 203)

Stephen Corey (1952 and 1953) was among the first to use action research in the field of education. He argued that the scientific method had never become an important part of educational practice and that most educational researchers arrived at generalizations with no intention of doing anything with the results of their research. Through action research, however, changes in educational practice would be more likely to occur because teachers, supervisors, and administrators would be involved in inquiry and the application of findings. Teachers themselves supported Corey's assumptions:

> We are convinced that the disposition to study, as objectively as possible, the consequences of our own teaching is more likely to change and improve our practices than is reading about what someone else has discovered regarding the consequences of his teaching. The latter may be helpful. The former is almost certain to be. (Corey,1953, p. 70)

Corey had more limited claims than Lewin for the results of action research. He believed that the value of action research lay in the extent to which it led to improved practice; the generalizations which emerged from action research applied to the present situation rather than a broad, representative population. Corey may have recognized what other action researchers would later experience: the difficulty in producing both traditionally defined educational theory and improved practice through action research. This conflict has led current action researchers (Adelman, 1985; Carr and Kemmis, 1986) to redefine educational research and theory as that which is grounded in and guides teacher practice. Because education is action-oriented and practical in nature, educational research must address practical problems, rather than theoretical (or context-free) problems (Carr and Kemmis, 1986). In many action research projects, especially in the United Kingdom and Australia, 'the emphasis has come to be on the overriding need for practical, specific solutions in education rather than the search for elusive truths' (Nisbet and Broadfoot, 1980, p. 27).

Corey, like Lewin, emphasized the need for researchers and teachers to work together on common concerns. Cooperation among teachers and between teachers and researchers increased the likelihood that participants would be committed to changing their behavior if the study indicated change was necessary. It provided a support group within which members could risk change and experimentation, and prevented those involved from being manipulated or coerced. Instead of being subjects of an experiment, teachers became the experimenters. Cooperation also provided a greater range and variety of perceptions and competencies from which the group could draw, and increased the probability that the study would be within the realm of possibility (Corey, 1953).

Corey felt that only minimal differences existed between scientific research and the commonsense problem-solving methods used by practitioners, although he argued that action research required more careful and systematic inquiry and interpretation than the commonsense method. In the action research process he outlined, teachers defined a problem, hypothesized or predicted consequences of a certain action, designed and implemented a test, obtained evidence, and generalized from the results. Practitioners used this experimental or hypothesis-testing model of research to provide them with a basis for future decisions and actions.

Between 1953 and 1957, interest in action research in education declined. University scholars attacked action research as methodologically poor and unscientific, and researchers withdrew to the universities to produce studies more acceptable to their colleagues. Practitioners, too, questioned whether or not action research lived up to its promises of helping them improve school practice and began to use other action-oriented methods of inquiry, such as evaluation (Kemmis, 1980).

In 1957 Hodgkinson wrote a critique of action research in education in which he presented the basic arguments against its use. Practitioners, he said, lacked familiarity with basic techniques of research, and 'research is no place for an amateur' (Hodgkinson, 1957, p. 142). Teachers did not have time to do research, and the time they did put into research detracted from their teaching. The use of substitutes for teachers engaged in action research also diminished the quality of students' education, and placed an extra financial burden on the school. Hodgkinson argued that no-one had ever examined what happened to teachers after they put the results of their research into practice. He suggested that teachers might actually become more resistant to change because they could defend their present practice by saying that it had been researched and proven good, a defense based on the false assumption that the class or classes researched represented all future classes.

According to Hodgkinson, action research detracted from education in ways other than its negative effects on pedagogy. Within a school, action research required a group leader who was sensitive to individual and group needs. 'If people of this sort are not available, group cooperation and consensus may be difficult or impossible to obtain. This could lead to failure concerning the action research, distrust of the teacher for colleagues, and a general lowering of school morale' (p. 143). Action research also emphasized the separate local school and threatened a consistent national program of education.

Finally, Hodgkinson argued that action research was not really research, because it did not meet the criteria of valid scientific methodology. Action research did not go beyond the solution of practical problems and often did not involve controlled experimentation because of teachers' lack of training in research. Action researchers did not look for broad generalizations in the field of education, nor did they relate their findings to a larger body of theory or knowledge. Hodgkinson's conclusions directly contradicted Lewin's belief that action research was valid scientific inquiry:

> Perhaps it would be better to define action research as quantified common sense rather than as a form of scientific, empirical research. (*ibid*, p. 146)

Sanford (1970) points out that the shift away from action research and back toward a distinct split between science and practice was advocated in the 1960s by the social science establishment in addresses at annual meetings and public panels and in reports from commissions. Social problems were distinguished from sociological problems, and only the latter were considered to be appropriate for academic research. As a result, policy and practice-related research fell into disfavor (Finch, 1985). Most educational research in the 1960s and early 1970s was done within a particular social science discipline, such as sociology or psychology. Educational issues were discussed in relation to key topics in that discipline and in a language which was unknown and inaccessible to most practitioners (Threadgold, 1985).

Federal funding agencies in the United States institutionalized the separation of scientific inquiry and educational practice during this time period (Sanford, 1970). Between 1954 and 1972, the federal government's goal in educational research and development was to promote 'improvement oriented change' (Guba and Clark, 1980, p. 9). Federal education agencies used a social science model, in which university scholars applied for federal funding, did their research, and presented the funding agency with a report of their findings. The federal government made no provisions for linking the research to development or dissemination processes so that it could be used to create change in schools. Only after the passage of the 1972 Education Amendments Act which established the National Institute of Education did the federal government begin to fund educational research and development centers which coordinated efforts for research, development, diffusion, and adoption (*ibid*). This movement was paralleled in the United Kingdom by the establishment in 1964 of the Schools Council, which also provided official support for educational research and development. In the 1970s, however, both the National Institute of Education and the Schools Council faced problems of translating research into practice, disseminating ideas to a broad range of practitioners, and providing teacher training which would allow for effective implementation of new programs (Lawton, 1980). These concerns may have contributed to the shift in the 1980s to more locally controlled, school-based action research.

Because of the critiques of action research as unscientific and unproductive and the emphasis in the social sciences and federal funding agencies on the separation of research and practice, action research in the 1960s and the early 1970s became inquiry done by practitioners with the help of a consultant (Ward and Tikunoff, 1982). During these years, action research was used to provide in-service teacher training and to improve practice rather than to produce generalizable results or theory.

> Action research emphasizes the involvement of teachers in problems in their own classrooms and has as its primary goal the in-service training and development of the teacher rather than the acquisition of general knowledge in the field of education. (Borg, 1965, p. 313).

The consultants or scientists involved in action research projects served as 'democratic leaders' who would 'stimulate and develop the talents of the group and train and supervise the participants' as they planned, conducted, and evaluated their research (Good, 1963, p. 234).

An example of this focus in action research in the United States is Schaefer's (1967) proposal that teachers use action research to make their school a center of inquiry rather than a distribution center for information. Through their investigations, teachers could find better ways of teaching a diverse student population the skills and knowledge they needed in society while simultaneously contributing to their own intellectual health, growth and professionalism. Schaefer did advocate school-university collaboration in action research, but the goal of inquiry remained the professional development of teachers and the production of situation specific, immediately useful knowledge. In the

United Kingdom, a similar pattern emerged from Lawrence Stenhouse's Schools Council Humanities Curriculum Project (HCP) in 1967. While the HCP produced curriculum materials, Stenhouse also focused on helping teachers examine the effects of new strategies for teaching controversial issues in the classroom. His goal, like Schaefer's, was to help teachers become self-reflective researchers, practitioners who could examine their own practice critically and systematically (Stenhouse, 1975). The understanding which resulted from investigating and reflecting on their own practice helped teachers make decisions in their classrooms and allowed them to clarify, modify, and elaborate the theories which informed their teaching (Nixon, 1981). Those who worked with Stenhouse later applied his ideas to several other teacher-based action research projects, such as the Ford Teaching Project (Elliott, 1977) and created organizations to support teacher researchers such as the Classroom Action Research Network, established in 1976 and coordinated from the Cambridge Institute.

In the mid-1970s, new and expanded views of action research in education began to appear, first in the United Kingdom as the result of continued interest in action research in other fields, and later in the United States (Kemmis, 1980; Ward and Tikunoff, 1982). The resurgence of action research as a cooperative venture which simultaneously contributed to knowledge in the field and improved practice reflected growing researcher dissatisfaction with traditional research methodology and design and teacher dissatisfaction with available in-service programs designed to help them develop and improve their practice.

In the 1970s, researchers began to question the applicability of quantitative, experimental methodologies to educational settings and problems. Traditional research methods adapted from the natural sciences tended to restrict the researcher's focus to short run events, isolated variables, and a limited range of meanings, creating an over-simplified picture of a complex classroom reality (Hall, 1975; Mishler, 1979; Nixon, 1981). The experimental method also required that conditions be held constant throughout the experiment and yielded data about the effectiveness of a project only after it had been completed. Both of these requirements conflicted with a teacher's need to modify and improve a 'treatment' throughout the process and therefore limited the usefulness of the research as a decision making tool for practitioners (McCutcheon, 1981; Pine, 1981). Clifford (1973), Mishler (1979), Mosher (1974) and others saw action research as a method which would help researchers more successfully examine the contexts and context-dependent actions and meanings in which learning occurred while helping teachers address their more immediate teaching concerns. Researchers began to articulate the value of more qualitative research methods which allow them to develop 'theoretically grounded critical accounts of "what happens"' which lead to an understanding of both practice and generalizable 'underlying social processes' (Finch, 1985, p. 114).

Another reason for the shift back to action research was researcher and teacher dissatisfaction with the linear model of research and development in which researchers validate new knowledge, develop it into a practical format, and disseminate it to practitioners for adoption (Krathwohl, 1974). This process created a gap between the researcher and user, and it usually resulted in little or no implementation of research findings at the classroom level. Research infrequently reached practitioners, and when it did it was often reported in language which had no meaning for them. Teachers often felt that much of the research available to them lacked practicality and was inconsistent with classroom reality (Cassidy, 1986; Cummings, 1985; Fisher and Berliner, 1979; Huling, 1981).

The linear process of educational research and development also imposed implementation models and procedures on practitioners who had no ownership of or commitment to research in which they had had no part (Clifford, 1973; Hall, 1975; Huling, 1981). Elliott (1977) explains that teachers must become conscious participants in the development of theories which arise from their practical concerns in order to make fundamental changes in their practice. Only through participation in planning and implementing new practices and observing and analyzing their effects will teachers accept and use research findings (Anning, 1986; Elliott, 1977). In the 1970s, action research was seen as an alternative to the traditional, linear approach of scientific research, because it included practitioner involvement in research which would be of immediate use in the school setting.

Practitioner participation in action research also addressed growing concerns during the 1970s that traditional staff development programs did not meet teacher needs. Action research would provide teachers with the opportunity to gain knowledge and skill in research methods and applications and to become more aware of options and possibilities for change. Teachers participating in action research would also become more critical and reflective about their own practice (Oja and Ham, 1984; Pollard, 1988; Street, 1986). Elliott (1977) quotes one teacher involved in an action research program who said, 'Indeed the value of this research to us may be in the analysis the teachers make of their methods and their whole approach to teaching' (p. 13). Teachers' heightened perceptions and understanding gives them greater control over their own behavior and makes them independent of others for professional growth (Elliott, 1977; Griffiths, 1985; Mosher, 1974; Pine, 1981). Lieberman and Miller (1984) see staff development through action research as a model for professional growth and an ongoing process of problem solving and program building within a school.

Action research, initiated in the 1940s by Kurt Lewin, and adapted by educators soon after, has reemerged in the 1970s and 1980s as a viable method for conducting educational research which contributes to knowledge in the field, change in school policy, and improved practice. While earlier studies of action research tended to report project outcomes, recent studies have begun to examine the processes or methods involved in action research with the assumption that an understanding of the elements underlying successful action research will lead to more effective research processes and designs. John Elliott (1985) describes such analysis as 'second order educational research' which focuses not on the issues teachers are studying but 'on the actions of those responsible for facilitating teacher deliberation' (*ibid*, p. 239). In the United States, these studies include Tikunoff, Ward and Griffin's (1979) Interactive Research and Development on Teaching study, which found that interactive research and development can produce rigorous research and stimulate staff development under certain conditions; Little's (1981) study which examined staff development in a school district; Hord's (1981) study which focused on the collaboration between a research and development center and a school district whose goal was to raise student performance on achievement tests; and Evans, Stubbs, Duckworth and Davis' (1981) Teacher Initiated Research, a project which aimed to give teachers the opportunity to improve their practice while producing practice-based research.

Another recent study is Huling's (1981) Interactive Research and Development project in which she used the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (Hall and Loucks-Horsley, 1978) to determine the effects of participation in a collaborative action research project on teachers' concern for and use of research findings and practices. She found that teachers who participated in the project demonstrated significantly greater changes in concern about the use of research findings in their practice, higher levels of research and development skills, and more positive attitudes about using research findings in their teaching than teachers who did not participate.

In the United Kingdom teachers in John Elliott's Teacher-Pupil Interaction and the Quality of Learning project (TIQL) (Elliott, 1985; Ebbutt, 1985) at the Cambridge Institute of Education focused on the gap between teaching for understanding and teaching for assessment. In their analysis of this project, Elliott (1985) and Ebbutt (1985) examine the dilemmas which arise in the collaboration between outside researchers with a research agenda and teachers who want to examine and reflect on their own practice. Their results (referred to again in Chapter 6) suggest that project success depends on a constant monitoring of the needs of practitioners and of the demands of educational research. Insistence on addressing both leads to improved practice, professional development, and further understanding of educational theory.

Whyte (1986) and Kelly (1985) address some of the same concerns in their examinations of their project, Girls Into Science and Technology (GIST). Their analyses of the processes and outcomes of this project suggest some of the difficulties in collaborating on an issue (sex bias in science and technology education) which must first be introduced to teachers as a concern and then acted upon. Other studies examining the process of action research include works by Elliott (1981) and Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) each of whom has developed a sequence of spiral steps designed to guide others through the process of action research. Volumes by Nixon (1981), Burgess (1984, 1985a, 1985b and 1985c) and Hustler, Cassidy and Cuff (1986) include essays written by teachers and researchers engaged in a range of action research projects in schools.

These studies suggest researchers' concern for the acceptance of action research as a valid, rigorous and productive form of educational research in the 1980s. To avoid the criticisms of the past and to meet the combined goals of improved practice, expanded theory, and staff development, educational researchers involved in collaborative action research must examine the processes in which they are engaged and use their findings to improve both the process and products of action research in the schools.

Characteristics of Collaborative Action Research

Ward and Tikunoff (1982) point out that the underlying premises and requirements of current action research projects closely resemble those applied in action research conducted thirty and forty years ago. Despite the fact that the specific forms and definitions of action research differ from project to project, each 'grounded by the participants and institutions they represent' (*ibid*), certain common characteristics emerge. Four basic elements of action research are its collaborative nature, its focus on practical problems, its emphasis on professional development, and its need for a project structure which provides participants with time and support for open communication. Each of these elements is described below.

Collaboration

The key characteristic of action research past and present is collaboration, which allows for mutual understanding and consensus, democratic decision making, and common action (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Street, 1986).

> Action research aims to contribute *both* to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the goals of social science by joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework. (Rapoport, 1970, p. 499)

Hord (1981) distinguishes between cooperation and collaboration, suggesting that in the former, participants reach some agreements but proceed individually toward self-defined goals, while in the latter, participants work together on all phases of a project which provides mutual benefits. Grundy and Kemmis (1982), Little (1981), and Oja and Pine (1981) also emphasize that in collaboration, teachers and researchers set common goals and mutually plan the research design, collect and analyze data, and report results. They claim that the involvement of both groups in every stage of research, development and application allows for the connection of theory and practice throughout a project and provides both teachers and researchers with the 'opportunity for reflection and for unexpected insight into situational realities' (Little, 1981, p. 4). According to Tikunoff, Ward and Griffin (1979):

> Collaboration is viewed as teachers, researchers and trainer developers working with parity and assuming equal responsibility to identify, inquire into, and resolve the problems and concerns of classroom teachers. Such collaboration recognizes and utilizes the unique insights and skills provided by each participant while, at the same time, demanding that no set of responsibilities is assigned a superior status. (p. 10)

Wallat *et al.* (1981) point out that 'parity and equal responsibility' in collaboration 'do not mean that each member has an equal role in decision making or input during all phases of the study. Role shifts occur depending on the needs of the situation. Continuity is provided by the researchers through the communication and collaboration network they establish with those involved in the study' (p. 94). In collaborative action research, researchers and practitioners contribute their knowledge and skills to a jointly defined research project and process.

Collaboration can take a number of forms, depending primarily on the degree to which practitioners are included in the project. For example, in Whyte (1986) and Kelly's (1985) GIST project, the research team introduced teachers to the concern about sex bias in science and technology through a series of workshops. Teachers were involved in some of the programs and changes which followed, but researchers initiated most of the action. In the first stage of Susan Florio's (1983) collaborative writing project, teachers were involved in data collection and dissemination of results. In the Action Research on Change in Schools project (Oja and Pine, 1983) described in Chapter 2, teachers identified a research question, designed a study, collected and analyzed data, and disseminated their findings. At different stages in the process, teachers with skills in research design, statistical analysis, and other needed skills assumed leadership roles in the group.

Collaboration also assumes that researchers and practitioners will communicate frequently and openly throughout the process to avoid possible conflicting perceptions and assumptions which result from their different positions in the field (Cummings and Hustler, 1986; Threadgold, 1985). Grundy and Kemmis (1982) call for a democratic process of 'symmetrical communication' (p. 87) which allows all members to participate on equal terms. For teachers, this may require a willingness to discuss their own problems and limitations, to share in the activities and ideas of others, and to be open to learning new skills and behaviors of use in the research process (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978; Pine, 1981). Researchers must convince university peers and funding agencies that working in schools is viable research (Fisher and Berliner, 1979; Rapoport, 1970) and must themselves accept that 'getting their hands dirty' in classroom complexities is an appropriate and rewarding research process (Pine, 1981, p. 13). In order to make collaboration succeed, researchers must learn to work with teachers as peers and be sure that their work supports rather than interferes with teachers' on going school responsibilities. Bown (1977) suggests that 'collaboration is an endless series of daily acts which respect equal partnership in joint undertakings rather than a flag to be saluted annually with glib rhetoric' (p. 7).

Focus on Practice

Most collaborative action research focuses on immediate problems defined by the participating practitioners (Cummings and Hustler, 1986; Ebbutt, 1985; Elliott, 1977; Rapoport, 1970; Wallat *et al.*, 1981). If university researchers are involved, they may provide an overall issue or framework or plan additional research in conjunction with the teachers' project, although the imposition of such a framework may limit practitioners' freedom to work on issues of importance to them (Elliott, 1985). Different projects again vary in their approach to this characteristic. Teacher-as-researcher projects (Cummings, 1985; Evans *et al.*, 1981; Nixon, 1981) focus primarily on teacher-initiated issues. Teachers may come together to share insights and develop generalizable ideas (Ebbutt, 1985; Hustler *et al.*, 1986) or they may use their findings primarily in their own classrooms. In other projects, such as Teacher-pupil Interaction and the Quality of Learning (TIQL) (Elliott, 1985) a general topic or issue is introduced to teachers who may then choose a related classroom problem to pursue. Because action research aims to change and improve the situation in which it is carried out, the research ultimately focuses on the classroom or school and the actions of practitioners in that situation.

Professional Development

Kurt Lewin advocated action research into social problems in part because he believed that social change depended on the commitment and understanding of those involved in the change process (Lewin, 1948). Action research in education has often been seen as a way of involving teachers in changes which improve teaching practice. The assumption, based on Lewin's work, is that if teachers work together on a common problem clarifying and negotiating ideas and concerns, they will be more likely to change their attitudes and behaviors if research indicates such change is necessary (Anning, 1986; Cassidy, 1986; Hall, 1975; Hodgkinson, 1957). Elliott (1977) and Little (1981) both suggest that collaboration provides teachers with the time and support necessary to make fundamental changes in their practice which endure beyond the research process. Teachers themselves explain that participation in action research groups gives them the support and impetus to change both their classroom practice and their approach to professional problems (Enright, 1981; Evans *et al.*, 1981; Smulyan, 1984).

Another expected outcome of action research in education, beyond change in practice, is teachers' professional growth. Collaboration provides teachers with many different perspectives. Through action research, teachers gain new knowledge which helps them solve immediate problems, broaden their general knowledge base as professionals, and learn research skills which can be applied to future interests and concerns (Mosher, 1974; Street, 1986). Teachers tend to emphasize that their new knowledge of the process of action research (knowing how to analyze a problem, work with others to solve it, and evaluate their results) is as useful to them as the specific product produced by their initial efforts in action research. Teachers who participate in action research projects become more flexible in their thinking, more receptive to new ideas, and more able to solve problems as they arise (Groarke *et al.*, 1986; Pine, 1981).

Noffke and Zeichner (1987) analyze several major action research projects carried out in the United States, United Kingdom and Australia to document the effects of action research on teachers' thinking. They find evidence for a number of developments: changes in teachers' definitions of professional skills and roles; increases in teachers' feelings of self-worth and confidence; increases in teachers' awareness of classroom issues; changes in teachers' disposition toward reflection; increases in teachers' awareness of and/or changes in specific educational beliefs; development of greater congruence between teachers' practical theories and practices; and a broadening of teachers' views on teaching, schooling, and society (pp. 4–5). The authors note that changes in teacher thinking may take different forms in studies conducted in the United States and United Kingdom or Australia. For example, in the United States, changes in professional skills resulting from participation in action research often include the development of skills necessary for traditional social science research, while in the United Kingdom, new professional skills and knowledge tend to include a greater self awareness in the classroom and understanding of the institutional, social and political constraints on one's work. Noffke and Zeichner suggest that these differences reflect differences in each country's perceptions of the profession of teaching and the concept of what constitutes professionalism in education.

Hall (1975) points out that action research also benefits the community in which it occurs, in this case the school or district, as well as the individual teachers who participate. Hall and others claim that through the process of collaboration, teachers tend to arrive at research questions which address school or district concerns rather than the problems of an individual teacher in the group. Their research results can then be used in the school or system as well as in participating teachers' classrooms (Borg, 1965; Griffiths, 1985; Nixon, 1981). Teachers who have participated in collaborative action research projects say that the process created new patterns of collegiality, communication, and sharing in their schools which carried over into and improved other activities and projects (Little, 1981). Some studies indicate, however, that the impact of collaborative action research on the school or system depends to a large extent on the involvement and support of administrators who can provide a project with legitimacy and continuity (Cohen and Finch, 1987; Elliott, 1985).

Project Structure: Conditions Necessary for Collaborative Action Research

Successful collaborative action research depends on a project structure which allows the prior three characteristics (collaboration, focus on practice, and professional development) to emerge. A project structure conducive to effective action research consists of at least four elements: (i) frequent and open communication among participants; (ii) democratic project leadership; (iii) spiraling cycles of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting; and (iv) positive relationships with the school context within which the project occurs.

Communication

Hord (1981), McLaughlin and Marsh (1978), and Wallat *et al.* (1981) all stress the importance of negotiating and articulating clear and specific goals from the outset of the project. Clear goals provide all participants with a sense of the project's value and what they will gain from it and establish a shared frame of reference from which hypotheses and future plans can be generated. Although defining mutual goals may consume a large part of the group's initial meeting time, this process provides the research group with a shared sense of commitment, mutual understanding and a framework for future tasks.

Shared goals imply patterns of communication which facilitate interaction. Communication between university researchers and teachers can often break down due to differences in language, perceptions, and expectations which result from their different positions in the field (Cummings and Hustler, 1986; Holley, 1977; Threadgold, 1985).

> Given this natural breach of language, and more importantly the thinking it represents, a collaborative research effort must take special pains to ensure that the different members of the collaborative team use the same language and understand each others' concerns. (Mergendoller, 1981, p. 6).

Frequent interaction among participants in the research project, through team meetings and more informal discussions, is a requirement of action research which helps to overcome communication difficulties and contributes to mutual understanding of goals, techniques, and perspectives (Corey, 1953; Elliott, 1985; Hord, 1981).

Leadership

Many of those studying action research also call for strong leadership in a collaborative action research project, by someone who can set a positive example as a collaborator (Ebbutt, 1985; Grundy and Kemmis, 1982; Hord, 1981; Nixon, 1981). This often means that the leader must disperse his or her power, sharing control and allowing others to delegate and assume responsibility. Recent studies of action research projects show a growing awareness of the need for a democratic process that considers each participant's needs, perspectives, and skills. Successful action research projects may struggle with and find ways to balance the concepts of collaboration or democracy and leadership which allow the project to move forward. (Chapter 5 discusses in more detail the role of the outside researcher as leader in collaborative action research.)

Spiraling Cycles

Lewin (1948) explains that action research proceeds through spiraling cycles of planning, execution, and reconnaissance (or fact-finding) in order to evaluate and perhaps modify the plan. Elliott (1981) and Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) adapt Lewin's description, each providing a model of the process of action research which emphasizes recurring cycles of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and revising (see Figures 1 and 2). They, too, use a spiral pattern to indicate that initial

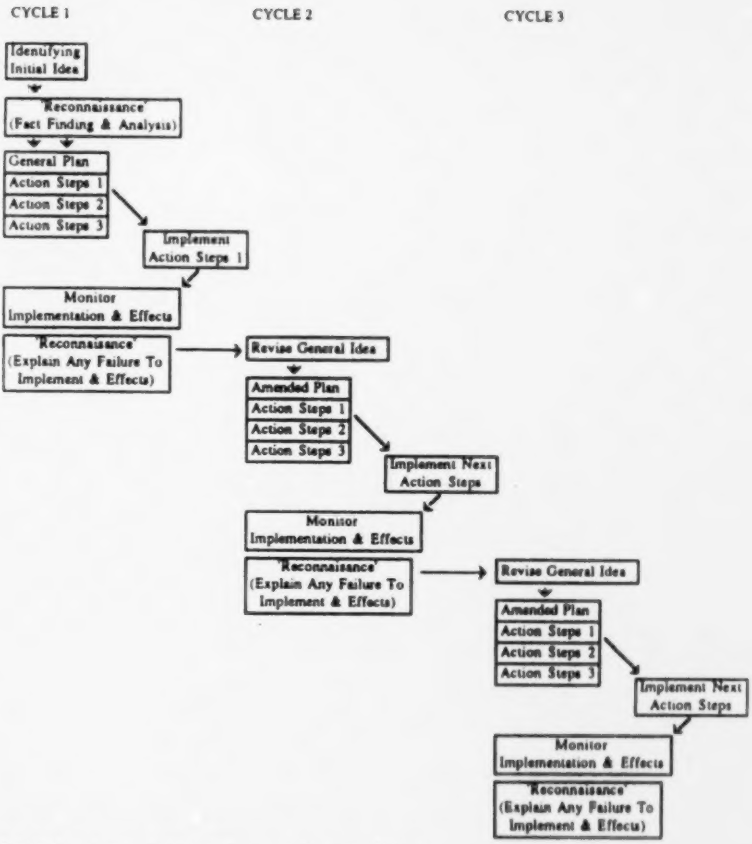
CYCLE 1
CYCLE 2
CYCLE 3
Identifying Initial Idea
'Reconnaissance' (Fact Finding & Analysis)
General Plan
Action Steps 1
Action Steps 2
Action Steps 3
Implement Action Steps 1
Monitor Implementation & Effects
'Reconnaissance' (Explain Any Failure To Implement & Effects)
Revise General Idea
Amended Plan
Action Steps 1
Action Steps 2
Action Steps 3
Implement Next Action Steps
Monitor Implementation & Effects
'Reconnaissance' (Explain Any Failure To Implement & Effects)
Revise General Idea
Amended Plan
Action Steps 1
Action Steps 2
Action Steps 3
Implement Next Action Steps
Monitor Implementation & Effects
'Reconnaissance' (Explain Any Failure To Implement & Effects)

Figure 1 Action Research Framework: John Elliott

Source: Ebbutt, D. (1985) 'Educational action research: Some general concerns and specific quibbles,' in Burgess, R., (Ed) *Issues in Educational Research: Qualitative Methods*, Lewes, Falmer Press. p. 165, figure 2.

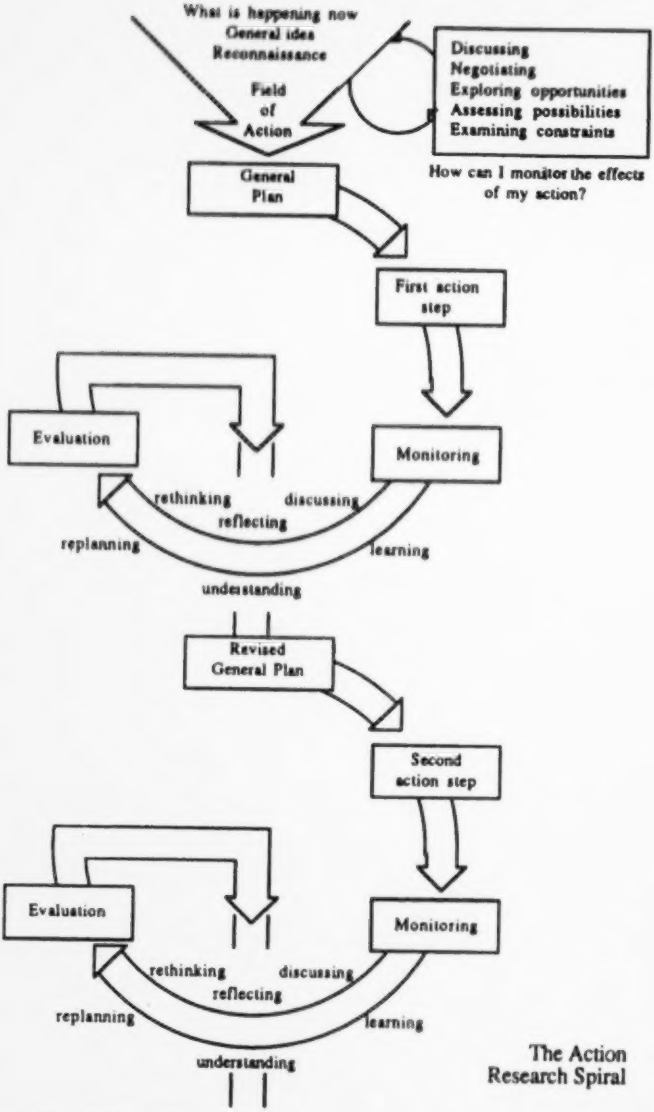
What is happening now
General idea
Reconnaissance
Field
of
Action
Discussing
Negotiating
Exploring opportunities
Assessing possibilities
Examining constraints
How can I monitor the effects
of my action?
General
Plan
First action
step
Evaluation
Monitoring
rethinking
discussing
reflecting
replanning
learning
understanding
Revised
General Plan
Second
action step
Evaluation
Monitoring
rethinking
discussing
reflecting
replanning
learning
understanding
The Action
Research Spiral

Figure 2 Action Research Planner Stephen Kemmis

Source Ebbutt, D (1985) 'Educational action research Some general concerns and specific quibbles,' in Burgess, R., (Ed) *Issues in Educational Research Qualitative Methods*, Lewes, Falmer Press, p 163, figure 1 ideas shift over time and that recurring reflection leads to modification of plans throughout the process. Grundy and Kemmis (1982) explain that spiraling cycles are necessary 'to bring action research under the control of understanding, in order to develop and inform practical judgment, and in order to develop an effective critique of the situation' (p. 85). Ebbutt (1985) sees the process of action research as a 'series of successive cycles, each incorporating the possibility for feedback of information within and between cycles' (p. 164) (see Figure 3). The emphasis remains the same, however; an action research project must provide participants with the opportunity to work through several cycles in order to be effective. This recursive rather than linear research process allows practitioners to use their own reflections, understandings, and developing theories to inform both practice and research (Oja and Pine, 1988). Action research projects must therefore be structured to allow this cyclical process to occur.

School Context

Certain elements of the school environment contribute to the effectiveness of action research projects. Projects are most successful when the school climate encourages communication and experimentation and when the administration supports the project (with technical support and/or assurances of further implementation or continuation). Studies by Elliott (1977), Whyte (1986) and Cohn and Finch (1987) all indicate that the school context affects teachers' willingness and ability to participate in the process of action research. Corey (1952) and Pine (1981) suggest that teachers need an atmosphere in which they are free to identify problems for inquiry, experiment with solutions, and express and share ideas with colleagues and administrators. Some of this freedom comes from an administration which recognizes collegial rather than hierarchical authority and allows teachers to make decisions which influence their practice and inquiry (Schaefer, 1967; Stenhouse, 1975). Ideally, the administration not only provides teachers with the freedom to experiment, but gives them the recognition needed to legitimize their project and ensure its continuation in the future (Cohn and Finch, 1987; McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978).

Administrative support may take the form of resources such as time and the technical and material assistance necessary to the research project's success. Many who advocate collaborative action research claim that time restraints often limit the research. In 1967, Schaefer said that teachers needed reduced teaching loads in order to step back from

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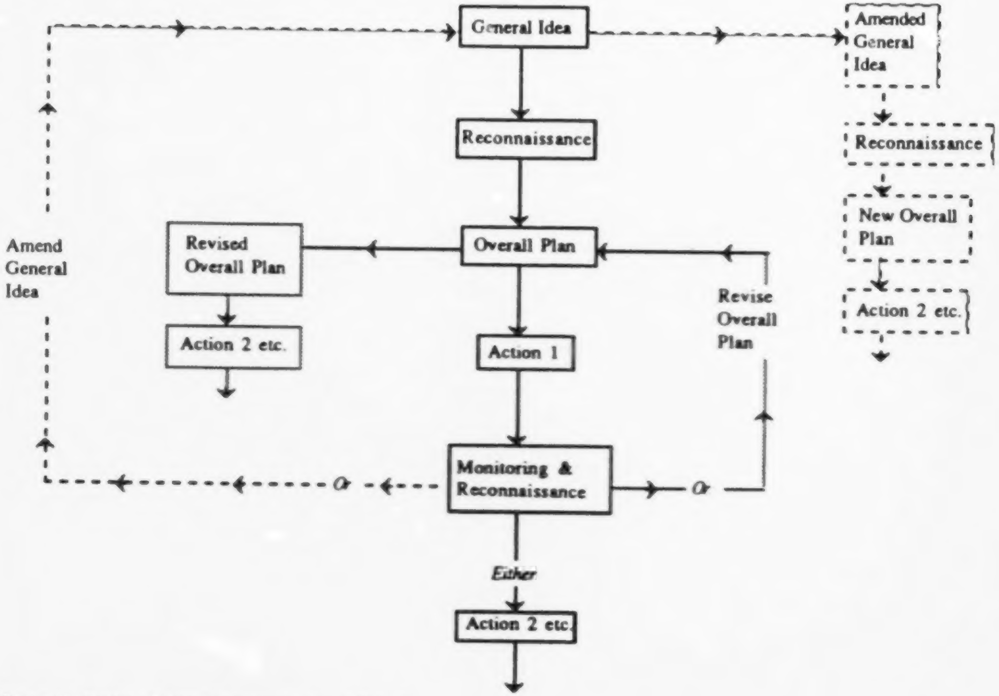

General Idea
Reconnaissance
Overall Plan
Action 1
Monitoring & Reconnaissance
Either
Action 2 etc.
Or
Revise Overall Plan
Revised Overall Plan
Action 2 etc.
Or
Amend General Idea
Amended General Idea
Reconnaissance
New Overall Plan
Action 2 etc.

Figure 3 Cycles of Action Research David Ebbutt

Source Ebbutt, D (1985) 'Educational action research Some general concerns and specific quibbles,' in Burgess, R , (Ed) *Issues in Educational Research Qualitative Methods*, Lewes, Falmer Press, p 166, figure 3 and reflect on teaching and learning. More recently, as economic and demographic pressures decrease the amount of in-school free time available to teachers, those writing about action research suggest only that 'participants must be willing to devote the necessary time to joint endeavors' (Hord, 1981, p. 9). Although the question of how to provide it remains unanswered, agreement exists that time is a valuable resource and a necessary condition for successful collaborative action research.

Action research also requires technical assistance and material support, which may include xeroxing, locating literature, and designing data collection tools. Teachers may need training in research techniques or new classroom practices and the input of observers or consultants in their classrooms as they conduct their inquiry. At times these resources can be provided by the university participants in the project; in other cases the school or system may agree to support the project in these ways.

Action research can exist without administrative or school support; teachers may work individually or in small groups to carry out projects in their classrooms (James and Ebbutt, 1981) or outsiders may provide the initiative, materials, and professional support needed to implement a project (Cohn and Finch, 1987; Whyte, 1986). Most projects which engage in these more independent forms of action research later reflect that greater school/administration involvement might have helped expand the impact, the longevity, and the legitimacy of the project. As Carr and Kemmis (1986) note when describing a project in which they had worked:

> The situation did not change as radically as the teachers involved had hoped, but they learned something about the change process itself: that they needed to involve others in the learning process they had gone through, and to involve them early. (p. 170)

Forms of Action Research

As we have previously suggested, action research can take a variety of forms. The characteristics of any particular project will depend on the particular goals emphasized, the degree of collaboration between practitioners and outside researchers, the processes used in carrying out the research, the relationship of the project to the school, and the project outcomes. Grundy and Kemmis (1982) and Noffke and Zeichner (1987) suggest that differences in action research reflect different countries' educational and research perspectives and priorities. They claim that British and Australian action research share a collaborative style but British action research is 'less strategically oriented and probably less politically aware. It emphasizes interpretive inquiry where Australian action research is more critical. ... And American action research tends to be more technical where Australian action research is more teacher-oriented and teacher controlled' (Grundy and Kemmis, 1982, p. 83).

Alison Kelly (1986) outlines three strands of action research in the United Kingdom: the teacher-as-researcher model exemplified by Stenhouse's work, the experimental social administration model which originated in Lewin's work, and the simultaneous-integrated model which draws on both of the others. Each of these is briefly described below along with a fourth form, collaborative action research, prevalent in the United States. Although projects from any country may fit neatly into one category or another, it is expected that many will have characteristics of more than one.

Teacher-As-Researcher

This form of action research aims to improve educational practice by engaging teachers in the processes of planning, acting and reflecting. Teachers provide the problems to be solved; if outside researchers are involved, their role is to help teachers as they examine their own practice. Eventually, the need for an outside facilitator is alleviated as practitioners take on responsibility for the process (Carr and Kemmis, 1986). While some of those engaged in teacher-as-researcher projects place less importance on the generalizability of outcomes and the contribution to educational knowledge and theory, others emphasize the importance of having teachers move to the step of sharing, generalizing, and writing about their insights (Elliott, 1985; Sheard, 1981). This form of action research, while most prevalent in the United Kingdom and Australia, appears in the United States as well (Cohn and Finch, 1987; Evans *et al.*, 1981).

Experimental Social Administration

Kelly (1986) describes this model of action research as aiming to affect policy and practice rather than engaging teachers in reflection on their own practice. In this model, researchers 'take a research-based hypothesis, test it in an experimental action project, and evaluate its effect' (p. 130). Practitioners have little input into the process and researchers remain outsiders to the situation in which the action occurs. This model does not clearly meet the expectations of collaboration, professional development, and a focus on practical problems which characterize most action research projects as we have defined them.

Simultaneous-Integrated Action Research

Kelly (1986) draws on the work of Hult and Lemming (1980) in defining this model of action research which contributes to both practical problem solving and scientific knowledge. Like the experimental social model, it is concerned with contributions to theory, but it allows practitioners to participate and involves a less rigid experimental design. Like the teacher-as-researcher model, it engages teachers in action and reflection on an immediate, practical situation, but the problem under investigation may be initiated by outside researchers; teachers may be collaborators but not necessarily innovators in the project. Kelly describes the GIST project as fitting this model; teachers were collaborators in the research project which was initiated and evaluated by outside researchers. Such a model is necessary, Kelly explains, when teachers are unaware of the problem and possible solutions.

Collaborative Action Research

A fourth model of action research has grown out of the projects funded in the United States by the National Institute of Education. This model brings together teachers, staff developers, and/or university faculty with the goals of improving practice, contributing to educational theory, and providing staff development. This form of action research tends to be carried out in teams which may or may not be school based. Each team negotiates a group project which addresses its members' concerns and then uses a recursive process of action research in carrying out its project in classrooms, schools, or school districts. In most of these projects, teams publish or present the results of their studies, and the projects themselves are documented and analyzed by researchers who look for insights into the processes of effective action research.

Examples of this form of action research include the Interactive Research and Development on Teaching Study (Tikunoff, Ward and Griffen, 1979), the Interactive Research and Development on Schooling Study (Griffin, Lieberman and Jacullo-Noto, 1983), and Interactive Research and Development studies by Huling (1981).

Conclusion

An examination of the history of action research in education helps explain the range of projects presently underway and the difficulties some of them face. Each project must establish a successful process of collaboration that meets the personal and professional needs of participants. Each must negotiate an appropriate place for itself within its school or system. Each must define its goals — how will it contribute to practice, theory, professional growth — and design a project to meet those goals. Many of those engaged in action research describe its inherent 'messiness,' the result of people from different areas of education working together to examine, change, and reflect on a setting that is itself volatile and alive.

The chapters which follow describe and analyze an action research project modeled on those described under the heading of collaborative action research, above. The Action Research on Change in Schools (ARCS) project (Oja and Pine, 1983) reflects the historical trends from which it grew and includes, in some form, all of the characteristics of action research described earlier in this chapter. In Chapter 6, we will return to some of these characteristics, using the ARCS project to reexamine the dilemmas, conflicts, and issues involved in meeting the expectations and demands of collaborative action research.

RICHARD SAGOR

Sagor, R. 1991. "What Project LEARN Reveals About Collaborative Action Research," Educational Leadership, 48 (6): 6-10. Reprinted with permission of ASCD. (c) ASCD. All rights reserved.

What Project LEARN Reveals about Collaborative Action Research

With "critical friends" to assist them, teachers in 50 schools in Washington are researching the answers to their own questions about teaching and learning.

Looking at the surface of things, we might believe that the last 20 years of educational research have provided us all the insights we need to improve our schools. We have seen the effective schooling correlates validated in study after study; we have been given rich descriptions of the workplaces where teachers are motivated and self-actualized; and we have seen evidence that certain instructional strategies enhance the achievement of students regardless of their socioeconomic status.

With each report of a school's success, we want to believe that we, too, can show comparable levels of performance if only we can replicate those factors in our schools. Yet all too often we find the anticipated growth in performance still eluding us. This repeated cycle of high hopes followed by our inability to replicate results continues to produce cynicism among teachers.

Enter Project LEARN

To break this cycle of hope and despair, Washington State University and the faculties of more than 50 schools have collaborated on Project LEARN (League of Educational Action Researchers in the Northwest). Our project is grounded in the belief that education's past failures have resulted not from incorrect data or lack of commitment but from an inadequate understanding of the process of change.

Rather than focusing on adopting "proven" practices, Project LEARN fosters school improvement by enhancing the professional lives of teachers. We accomplish this by working with the staffs of schools and districts who have expressed an interest in initiating school improvement (defined as "enhancing the quality of teaching and learning") by engaging in action research.

Rather than focusing on adopting "proven" practices, Project LEARN fosters school improvement by enhancing the professional lives of teachers.

Project LEARN's hope is that meaningful practitioner research will lead to improved classroom practice and become a stimulus for both the cultural transformation of schools and the restructuring of the teaching profession. To accomplish those twin purposes, the project discourages individualistic initiatives, encouraging instead the participation of a "critical mass" of collaborating teachers from each member school.

The Project LEARN cycle begins with the formation of action research teams, teachers who will work together on a problem for at least one full academic year. To prepare for their work, the teams participate in a two-day workshop on the basic steps of conducting action research: identifying problems and collecting data. Teams from several schools and localities receive the training together at a central location so they can create networks with colleagues who are addressing similar problems. At the end of this initial training period, each action research team completes a written action plan, specifying the problem, the data collection techniques, and any anticipated technical or logistical needs.

Next, the teams begin conducting their research. During this period the project offers assistance through a cadre of trained "critical friends." Crit-

The Project LEARN cycle begins with the formation of action research teams, teachers who will work together on a problem for at least one full academic year.

ical friends are educators with research experience who volunteer to help project teachers by giving their independent viewpoints. Many school districts participating in Project LEARN train their supervisors to serve as critical friends for action research teams both inside and outside the district. The current cadre of 20 critical friends consists of school administrators, teachers, university professors, and independent consultants. Project LEARN teachers can request the help of these critical friends whenever they feel the need for feedback from a colleague with a fresh perspective on their particular teaching or research problems. To ensure that the critical friends work to support the research rather than to direct it, their efforts are governed by a set of ethical and procedural guidelines (see fig. 1).

In mid-January of each year, approximately four months after the basic training, the teams attend a one-day follow-up workshop. The purpose of this meeting is to address difficulties encountered during the data collection phase and to provide instruction for conducting the data analysis and action planning portions of the cycle.

Then each spring, Project LEARN hosts a two-day International Symposium on Action Research, where project participants as well as action researchers from elsewhere in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada can present both the process and the results of their school-based research. The annual International Symposium completes the first-year Project LEARN cycle; however, since many teams will continue to conduct research, we have created a program to serve them. The major purpose of the continuing program is to provide networking training in advanced methods and access to future symposiums.

A First-Cycle Experience

For example, some middle school math teachers at the fall Project LEARN training session began to wonder: If writing is a window into thinking and if the act of writing helps improve comprehension, why not try it in middle school math classes?

The teachers began a collaborative inquiry into the role of writing in the development of computational skills. To test their hypothesis that writing can improve those skills, they decided to use an experimental design. They constructed, then administered tests to their math students during the first nine weeks of school to gather baseline data. They used the results to split the four 7th grade math classes into two groups: two performing well and two below expectations. Then they made the lower-achieving classes the treatment group; and the higher achievers, the control group.

During the second quarter the teachers continued to instruct the students in the control group as before, while they gave the lower-achieving students the opportunity to write about the math concepts they were learning, on the day before each examination. In every other respect they provided the two groups of students the same educational experience: the same amount of time for instruction and independent study (minus the writing time for the experimental group) and the same exams.

When the data were analyzed at the January workshop, the teachers found that writing had indeed made a substantial difference in concept acquisition. The experimental sections actually outperformed their (previously higher-achieving) classmates on each test.

With the experimental work out of the way, the project team turned to the "action" stage of the action research process. They presented the data to their colleagues (and to the International Symposium) and made plans to revise their middle school's math curriculum. This year all math classes in this school include "writing about computation."

Will it continue to make a difference? The teachers think so, but they are sure of one thing: "data-driven" teaching has become a way of life for them. They don't ever intend to give up the search for a "better mousetrap."

Fig. 1. Project LEARN Guidelines for Critical Friends

A critical friend is chosen according to the needs and desires of the project participants. The critical friend will not hold a "stake" or "ownership" in the problem being addressed or in the outcome of the project unless such is granted by the participants.

- A critical friend is a positive friend, whose primary agenda is to assist the project toward success.
- A critical friend may have a personal agenda complementary to the project's. The critical friend will share with the participants his or her motives/intents at the time of the first interaction.
- A critical friend is a visitor and participates only at the continued invitation of the project.
- A critical friend will respond and act honestly at every juncture.
- It is the critical friend's obligation to declare any conflict of interest or conflict of values with the project focus or methods.
- A critical friend will assume that the project's interactions, work, and findings are confidential unless the project directs otherwise.
- The project participants are expected to assist the critical friend by fully informing him or her of all agendas prior to each consultation.

Factors in Our Success

It all began in the fall of 1989, when administrators from eight districts in two states were invited to send teams to participate in Project LEARN's inaugural training program. These districts/schools were invited because of their history of commitment to school improvement and their willingness to support the project financially.

It didn't surprise us that more than 130 teachers from more than 20 separate schools enrolled in that first year program. What was surprising, however, were their comments after their first two days of training. This comment from one teacher was typical: "It's about time someone asked teachers to help set their own school improvement agenda!" Had those comments come from faculty in schools led by top-down dictatorial principals, we wouldn't have been the least bit surprised. Yet, when we repeatedly heard those statements from the lips of teachers who had been participating in organized school improvement projects for years, we had to ask ourselves, *What is it about collaborative action research that has teachers perceiving it as so different from other school improvement programs?* After analyzing preliminary data, we have identified five factors that have facilitated the success of our work. We believe these factors have implications for anyone designing school improvement programs.

1. The importance of volition. Teachers have come to expect that their school improvement agendas will be set for them. Thus, participants in Project LEARN appeared genuinely surprised when they found the focus of their projects could be any issue they deemed both important and perplexing. The only preconditions were that the problems being investigated had to impact student learning and be under their control. Further, the reflective interviewing process we used to tease out topics turned out to be a surprise in itself. Apparently, being granted the uncommon luxury of 20 uninterrupted minutes of dialogue with colleagues on instructional concerns was as foreign to participants as it was refreshing. Furthermore, reflective interaction about what is important resulted in common goals for the team. Clearly, people are more committed to goals they have formulated themselves than to those which are imposed upon them.

Ironically, the set of topics that emerged from these teachers weren't much different than we'd expect from a traditional administrator-led process (see fig. 2). The only differences were slight: for example, a site administrators' second priority might have emerged as the teachers' first, or vice versa. That's a small price for management to pay in exchange for enhanced ownership and commitment.

Clearly, people are more committed to goals they have formulated themselves than to those which are imposed upon them.

Fig. 2. A Selection of Project LEARN 1989–1990 Projects

1. What factors influence student achievement in our school? What can we do to improve achievement?

2. Will group retellings of literature be a useful tool for K-5 teachers to accurately describe a student's comprehension ability and improve the instructional program?

3. Evaluate the student management system (discipline) and give direction for any subsequent changes.

4. How can we effectively and efficiently conduct group parent/teacher conferences?

5. Is the integrated elementary special education model better for "resource" students than a traditional pull-out approach?

6. Identify variables common to academically at-risk students in order to provide better intervention techniques.

7. How can we increase the articulation of our Language Arts program through 6th, 7th, and 8th grades?

8. Is our delivery of support services helping to maintain or improve student progress in academics, social environment, and language?

9. Develop, implement and assess effective strategies for at-risk students.

10. How can we create a teaching environment that uses thematic instruction and meaningful activities to bring focus and inspiration to teaching academics while maintaining academic accountability?

2. Availability of critical friends. One major difference in this project was the availability of "critical friends." Throughout the year, this cadre volunteered to lend their expertise to the action research teams. Ethical guidelines were developed to assure that ownership of the research would reside with the practitioners. Those who used critical friends liberally praised their assistance as giving a substantial boost to their projects. Apparently, having high-quality, free consultant help available on demand was not only a new experience for these teachers, but it gave them the psychological freedom to venture into territory where their interests, if not their confidence, led them.

3. A first-class environment. At the outset we decided to hold our training sessions in the large banquet rooms of centrally located first-class hotels where the training time could be divided equally between large group presentations and small group work. Although this format was originally chosen for its efficiency, it ended up paying unforeseen dividends. Our participants repeatedly told us that the quality of the catering, the service, and the surroundings reinforced the perceived importance placed on the tasks at hand—as did the energy generated by dozens of colleagues actively and visibly involved in the same work.

4. *Public affirmations.* Several times in numerous ways, each team was invited to tell all the other teams about the status of their initiatives, their needs, and their goals. The sharing provided a supportive environment for risk-taking and experimentation in which people could generate ideas, network with each other, and become collegial. Apparently, enthusiasm and success are contagious: the positive, successful teams provided hope, encouragement, and inspiration to faltering colleagues.

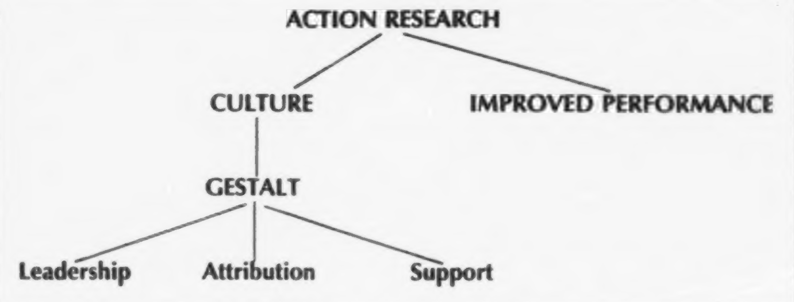
The public affirmations not only facilitated sharing across schools, but they also created a certain amount of peer pressure to follow through with the upcoming tasks of data collection, analysis, and action planning.

5. *Strategic scheduling.* Teachers are very busy people. The constant demands from students, administrators, and parents can be so overwhelming that an optional project, regardless of how meritorious, often falls to the bottom of a "to-do" list. Fortunately for us, we made several strategic and logistical decisions that provided just the requisite amount of extrinsic pressure for participants.

The initial training, held during the last week in September, coincided with the time of year in which the pressures of getting school started had largely subsided while all the school-opening enthusiasm was still in bloom. Even so, many participants' best intentions went unfulfilled until December, when they realized that the January follow-up training was just around the corner. The knowledge that they were expected to have locally derived data to work on at this session apparently was just enough of an incentive to get them moving on their projects.

Likewise, the need to conclude and polish the projects in time for presentation at the International Symposium (late April) provided just the push that several teams needed to stay on task. Apparently, our inservices not only provided training but strategically orchestrated support and encouragement throughout the year.

Fig. 3. Action Research as "Effectiveness" Turbocharger



Making Good Schools Better

It would be nice to say that every team that participated in Project LEARN completed its research, that the culture of all the schools underwent positive transformations, and that student learning dramatically improved at each site. Unfortunately, that didn't happen, at least not everywhere. However, our preliminary data did suggest certain sharp distinctions between the work environments of the teams that thrived and those that faltered.

When asked to identify which factors enabled or constrained progress on the projects, the responses of Project LEARN participants produced an interesting pattern. Those who had been part of successful teams credited the nature of their projects (the importance of the topic being researched and the action research process itself), external support (released time, administrative encouragement, and the help of their critical friends), and the nature of their colleagues (their drive, commitment, and "chemistry") with keeping the projects on track. Likewise, teachers on the teams that failed to carry through cited the nature of their projects (not important enough to justify the energy necessary), the absence of extrinsic support (lack of resources and released time), and the nature of their collegial work group (divisive and leaderless) as the chief reasons for dropping their projects.

Our analysis of these data led us to conclude that schools with productive cultures (a habit of focusing on important issues, norms of leadership, collegiality, and support) are the ones that will get the most out of action research (Saphier and King 1985). Conversely, schools where these norms are weak will probably not find action research to be a particularly productive strategy (although the evidence suggests it will do no harm). Those findings brought us to conceptualize "action research" as a cultural turbocharger (see fig. 3).

A Promising Tool

So far, our search for the perfect school improvement strategy hasn't turned up the magic potion which will turn any frog into a prince. As powerful a tool as collaborative inquiry appears to be, it will not transform a school in the absence of leadership, collegial respect, and technical and logistical support for the professional work of teachers.

But in an atmosphere of support, trust, and collegiality, collaborative action research has great potential for focusing a school's attention on the correlates of effective schooling. Offering such a tool to school faculties may prove to be one of the most promising actions we can take to improve our schools.☐

Reference

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SPEAKING OF ACTION RESEARCH
(Paper adapted from a presentation by John Watkins to The Regional Laboratory's Board of Overseers)
June 1992[1]

I'm going to try in this paper to get a bit more clear on a definition of Action Research. One of the things that you find when you start exploring Action Research is that there are as many definitions out there as there are people who even know what the words are, and probably a lot more things that people do that are like Action Research but they don't use the same words we do. We're trying as a Regional Lab and as a collection of schools to come to an agreement about what we mean by Action Research. A simple definition to start with might be: **action research is people getting together to examine their work in a systematic, reflective, and ongoing way, with the goal of improving their work to make it more consistent with their vision.**

This paper is organized around a handout called "Four Things Action Research Is Not", developed by Colin Henry and Stephen Kemmis who have been working with schools doing teacher-based research for a number of years. We have modified it slightly for our purposes. The points that it makes are helpful, so I am going to go over them briefly.

Action Research is not the usual things that teachers do. One of the things that is interesting to us as we have worked with teachers on assessment, is when we really start

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inquiring into what it means to do authentic assessment in the classroom, a lot of teachers say, "Oh, wow. I've been doing that for years." We say, yes, that is true, but where is it recorded? and they say, "It is all up here" (in our heads). So maybe what teachers have been doing for years is a kind of action research. They have been questioning what they do, they've been trying to improve their work, they've been trying to pay attention to what is actually happening in a classroom, and using those data to help them make decisions about what to do next.

But we're talking about something that is more systematic; it has an explicit structure to it. And it is also more collaborative; you're not just doing it by yourself in your classroom. You're not even, as a lot of places are, just doing it as a group of teachers working together.

There are a number of action research projects in this country where large groups of teachers, across schools, across districts, get together to do collaborative Action Research projects. We're talking about a process that is even bigger than that. It goes to the school as a part of the system and focuses on the system as something that is changing. Although it may include individual teachers studying things in their own classrooms, studying their own practice, and their own kids and learning, it will also interconnect individual studies and expand to involve the whole Design and Change process.

Finally, some Action Research projects may start with a question, but often the questions get left behind in the doing of things, and we want to make sure that this process continues to be driven by questions. We not only are expecting the people we work with in schools to keep asking questions about their work, but we expect ourselves to keep asking questions about our work with them and among ourselves.

Action Research is not just problem solving. A lot of traditional Action Research is very oriented towards the problem-solving process. You find something that is wrong, you design a way to make it better, you try it out, see what works, and move forward. That is an important part of what we're talking about, but it is not the whole thing. Often when you do that kind of problem-solving process, you get involved in a deficit model. You're looking at all the things that are wrong. What we're trying to move toward is a process that is based on a vision of learner-centered classrooms, a vision of a school that is organized that way, with goals and targets and ways of getting there. So, we're talking about an Action Research process that is based on vision and goals, and then within that, must certainly involve problem-solving.

Action Research is based on changing and learning from the changes through structured reflection. It is not just a process of resolving a problem. It is changing things and seeing what happens when you change things, through observation and critical reflection.

Action Research is not research "done on" others. There are some traditional Action Research models where outside people come in, do research on somebody, go off, analyze their data, write it up, bring it back, and hope that will provide the basis for those people to change. We believe really strongly that the people who do the work, do the learning. We're talking about a learning process, and that means it is done by people on themselves and on their work. Now that doesn't mean that it is done only by the people in the school. What we're talking about is a collaboration. It is done by us and them, together, on our collective change effort. So we're looking at their work and our work, they're looking at their work and our work, and we're doing this together as it happens. And it is done by them at the same time on their own work. Since we can't be there all the time (there is no way, given the resources that we have, that we can be in schools all the time), they have a lot of responsibility for gathering data, for asking questions, for analyzing those data. Our job is to help them with that, and eventually we are working toward it becoming a normal part of the profession of teaching.

Action Research is also about building knowledge through inquiry. Action Research involves learning. It is not just a planning and acting process. It is a process of building knowledge, finding out what we know, finding out what we don't know, finding out where other knowledge is, through a process of networking. For instance, instead of saying, "We're going to do whole language," you might say, "Given what we're learning about kids, what do we think they need in order to be better learners? " You might say, "Well, one of the things that we've noticed when working with kids, is that when we use basals they don't seem to really get engaged with the process." So we could say, "Some people have been trying to use a whole language approach. What would it mean if we were to do that?" Not "Let's do it". But, "*What would it mean* if we were to use a whole language approach?" and then let's study that. Let's pay attention to it as we go through the process of trying to use it. See what happens. Then, ask that question again: "What seems to be happening here?" It is finding out what *we* know, and finding out what *other* knowledge there is out there that we can use in the process; not just waiting for someone to tell us to do something, but using inquiry to search out knowledge.

Finally, Action Research is a community of inquirers. It is people working together as learners, us included. It is not the scientific method applied to teaching. It is not setting up experimental designs and "controlling" all the variables and gathering data on the results of our experiments. It is a systematically evolving, living, organic, learning and changing process, that is changing both the researcher and the situation. The artificial distinction between "the researcher" and "the researched" is one that we hope will disappear in the process. That is to say, finally, it is not "research" as separate from and "done on" action. The research process itself is action in that it is people doing something different, asking questions about it, seeing what is going on as they do it, using question asking and reflection to drive what they are doing. The action is also the research in the same way.

An example of this is one of the tools being developed by Matt Miles studying teacher's conceptions of restructuring. He is developing research methods for mapping their conceptions. In the very process of asking people to tell you what their conceptions of restructuring are, their conceptions of restructuring change and they, as a result, might be able to do things differently. This is a kind of marriage between inquiry and action.

The following is an example of Action Research used to help steer school-wide change. One school we are working with is developing an educational plan in a collaborative process as part of their site-based decision making process. Traditionally, it might be seen as a job for the site-based management team to write up a bunch of goals and say what people are going to do about the goals. What we're asking the school to do is to say, "All right. We have done some different things over the past two years. We have, as teams of teachers, at grade levels (this is the way this particular school is organized right now), been asking ourselves some questions about what we've been doing, why it's working, why it's not working, who's doing what at different grade levels." One of the things that they've been experimenting with is more inclusive classrooms, integrated classrooms where kids with special needs, Chapter 1 kids, bilingual kids, are all in the same classroom working together with a team of teachers. Another thing they've been experimenting with is whole language and developmentally appropriate practice in different ways at different grade levels.

As they put together their educational plan for next year, the Site-Based Decision-Making Team asked each of the teams to come up with a plan based on what they had been doing, where they thought they were, and where they thought they needed to go next. The site-based team is trying to compile the team plans into a larger educational plan to meet the requirements of the district. We're asking them to take that plan as a set of questions to their work next year. So the people who are working on more inclusive classrooms are asking, "What happens when we try these particular strategies to achieve a more integrated classroom?" As they do that, we are asking them to try to collect data on the process, what's happening to kids when they do that, what individually are kids' learning experiences, how is the classroom teaching and learning setting different, why are we doing the things that we're doing, what do we think will happen by organizing that way, what implications does that have for the way the school is organized? And as we try to have all those kids together, what happens to Chapter 1 teachers, what happens to special ed teachers, what happens to the way those people have to be able to work together, what are the problems that come up, how do we try to arrange those people so we can get that work done? And as they ask those questions, we want them to pay attention, to write, to gather some data, to keep journals, to do surveys, to use a variety of different data collecting methods to gather information about how it works.

Then as the year progresses, we will begin to sit down with the Site-based Team and say, "How do you think it's going? How are you doing with this goal, with this educational plan, that you had put together last Spring? How are you doing at achieving those goals? How do you see the connections between the little things you're doing in the classroom and your larger goals? Are you getting closer? What's not working? And then to assess the whole process periodically and have that feed into their next year's planning. It's an iterative, recurring process.

I gave you the example of the inclusive classroom, but there are a number of different things that they're working on. The hard thing, then, is to begin to build those together into some sort of coherent whole, so that the whole school has a sense of moving in a common direction. Asking questions like those listed above should help begin to do that.

One question about Action Research is, how much awareness do people in a school have that what they're doing is Action Research.

We're trying to come up with language that's not harsh and threatening and full of research jargon, so instead of talking about methods and study design and research questions, we're trying to come up with some fairly common sense words for those terms. "What is it that you're interested in knowing about? What do you think it would look like if it were working the way you wanted it to look? How would you know if you were getting there? What evidence do you have or need to make those judgments? Who will collect it?"

We do want teachers to begin, and whole schools to begin, thinking of themselves as researchers. We want to be able to move towards where that kind of activity is valued as a normal part of professional practice. Schools working with the Lab using Action Research know that we are collectively studying their work, gathering data about it, and trying to answer questions. I think over time we can move toward more rigorous research design, but we have to start where people are.

Let me present another brief example. When we were first developing our Action Research approach, we got a call from the Vermont Department of Education asking us if we would help evaluate the progress of eleven schools that were part of their state initiative, Reinventing Vermont Schools for Very High Performance. We said, no, not if what you want is for us to come up and evaluate what the people are doing and leave, because we don't really believe that anybody can learn from that except us. But we'd be glad to help you design a collaborative process. We figured that since we were working on the design for Action Research, we would use Vermont as an opportunity for us to learn as well. We designed a collaborative process to help them use action research to evaluate their progress. What we did with them was to say, "You can use collaborative inquiry as a way of understanding where you have been, what you have accomplished, how that connects to your goals, and then have that help you plan where you're going next.

We have tried to present an overview of our approach to action research as a tool for school-wide professional growth and change. We believe as schools transform into places of learning for all people, they will see that professional growth is at the core of this transformation and they will find that Action Research is a key strategy for that growth.

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Action Research: A Field Perspective

Patricia Wood
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Research Association

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For the past 8 years I have been an elementary teacher at Wingra School, which is an alternative elementary and middle school in Madison, Wisconsin. Wingra School was started in 1972, based on the British Infant School model. The goal of providing a child-centered and humanistic environment underscores the philosophy of the school and continues to be an important component of curricular planning. The teachers work together to write most of the school's curriculum. The school offers a non-traditional placement, as well, for student teachers from the University of Wisconsin. While at Wingra School, I have served as a cooperating teacher with twelve student teachers doing their final practicums. Along with a general description of action research, this paper is a personal account of an action research project as well as the action research I've shared with two student teachers.

During the first semester of the 1986-87 school year, I shared my classroom with a student teacher who was involved in an action research project concerning stereotypic gender choices. Initially, I did not understand her explanation of action research; however, I did appreciate the questions she was asking that related to her project and I valued our focused discussions that resulted. Often our planning sessions would become indepth discussions about teaching, the rights teachers' have to impose change on children, and childrens' decision-making.

Regularly, I was asked to help collect data for her project by recording children's responses, social preferences, and activity choices. I also helped design activities and discussions that would provide data needed to answer her action research question. After a number of action research cycles, my student teacher and I re-defined her question having realized the underlying issue was really one of cooperation. This ongoing experimentation, discovery and growth was exciting to participate in and observe in a pre-service teacher.

From this initiation to action research, I saw potential to use it in my own work. A course I was taking at the University, "Pre-service and In-service for Teacher Education" contained a section on action research. After several readings and discussions, I was able to formulate an action research project that related to my work. This paper is a report on this project as well as some later reflections on action research.

OVERVIEW: COMPONENTS OF CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH

Defining Classroom Action Research

Classroom teachers who do action research are becoming more actively and personally involved in their own professional development. These teachers first identify an area of their teaching that they would like to change. This change will result from teacher self-reflection, systematic observation, collaboration and experimentation.

Stephen Kemmis has been a leader in identifying the values of the action research approach in school settings. Kemmis clearly defines action research as a "systematic process of learning by doing--carefully observing the character and consequences of what one does with the tripartite aim of improving one's own practices, improving one's understanding of these practices and improving the situation in which these practices are carried out." (Kemmis, 1986, p. 9).

Action research is organized in four cyclical 'moments' or steps. To do action research one undertakes:

1. to develop a plan of action to improve what is already happening,
2. to act to implement the plan,
3. to observe the effects of action in the context in which it occurs, and
4. to reflect on these effects as a basis for further planning, subsequent action and so on, through a succession of cycles (Kemmis, 1981, p. 7).

The focus for action research comes from individual teachers, because they are most aware of the practices that are used, the issues of concern, and the questions that are most relevant in their classrooms. The teachers may use qualitative and/or quantitative research techniques for the purpose of documenting what is happening and effecting change. Many teachers involved in action research meet regularly in support groups to refine questions and to address methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation.

There are two general approaches to action research: individual and collaborative. Action research can be done by a teacher who enters the reconnaissance phase in isolation, yet might have assistance in data collection. Working alone on action research requires the researcher to draw primarily on her own resources and experiences. A teacher who works alone has the advantage of doing the research at a time that is most productive and convenient. Most action research is done with some form of collaboration.

Collaborative action research is based on three underlying assumptions:

1. teachers work best on problems they have identified for themselves,
2. teachers become more effective when encouraged to examine and assess their own work and then consider ways of working differently,
3. teachers can help each other by working collaboratively (Watts, 1985, p. 122).

The process is a prime example of accessing teacher expertise, for, as Kemmis (1986) states, "It is a participative and collaborative process--others cannot action research our practices, understandings, and situations for us, we can only action research ourselves". (p.9)

A teacher who does action research collaboratively follows the same procedure; however, in addition to evaluating her own perspectives on a situation she will receive the perspectives of her colleagues. This collaboration leads teachers to a broader awareness of their options and possibilities. Collaboration also provides teachers with the support and encouragement they need to remain dedicated to their project. Collaborative action research could be viewed as helping the teaching profession become less isolated.

Identification of a Focus for Action Research

To utilize action research, teachers first identify a focus for their research. This focus may begin as a vague statement of the teacher's concern: for example, "Are the girls as academically challenged as the boys during the school day?" The focus does not have to be a problem, but, should be viewed as one aspect of teaching that would benefit by change. The focus could also include an idea, curriculum, or technique with which a teacher might wish to experiment. Because action research can be very involving, the focus should be in an area that is important to the teacher. Teachers should avoid issues that they can not solve or that are out of their control.

Once a focus has been identified, the teacher must begin to narrow it down and refine it. This refining process should result in a simple, clear question which will be the topic of the action research process. The question may change as the research progresses, but, it is important to begin with one clear question.

Kemmis data suggests that the question for action research be written to include three parts;

1. What is happening now?
2. In what sense is this problematic?
3. What can I do about it?

Some examples of action research questions might be:

1) My students struggle with fractions each year. The textbook moves too quickly and abstractly through the material on this topic. Is there a more concrete way that I could present fractions?

2) The children have a difficult time selecting activities on their own. There is too much time spent directing children. What can I do to help them with decision-making?

Data Collection

After a teacher has identified a question, she must select a workable way to collect data surrounding that question. There are many ways to collect information including; anecdotal records, checklists, tape or video recordings, interviews, collections of children's work, surveys or sociometric methods. It is important to select a monitoring device that fits well with the teacher's style of teaching, the classroom environment and schedule, as well as the action research question. The teacher is encouraged to select a monitioring technique that will provide the most helpful information to address her question. It is conceivable for a teacher to use several forms of data collection. The data must provide consistent information that will document change as it occurs. David Hopkins' (1985) and Rob Walker's (1985) books can be helpful in identifying concrete suggestions on data collection techniques.

As we teach, we are mentally collecting data at all times. In action research, data collection is more narrowly focused and is written down. This feedback provides a record of what has happened in the classroom. It also provides data for reflection, systematic evaluation, and planning to implement change.

Many teachers recruit another teacher, student teacher, administrator or parent to assist in data collection. If an outside person is involved, the purpose and method for data collection should be explicitly defined and clearly explained to assure that the information will be useful during the reconnaissance phase.

Journal-Keeping

Keeping a daily journal or diary is a valuable component of action research. The journal provides one way for a teacher to observe relevant changes that have occurred in her project. According to Zeichner, the journal should record changes in four areas; teachers' practices,

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teachers' understandings, teachers' situations, and changes in the action research work itself. The journal is valuable during reflection because it helps the teacher recall exactly what happened as well as providing a record of changes in teacher attitude and class response.

Although action research is organized into four distinct 'moments'-- plan, act, observe, and reflect-- these moments are not to be thought of as static or independent of one another. The steps are to be seen as moments in a spiralling sequence of action research.

One: The Plan

Plans for action research should be designed to be fluid and capable of being changed, not rigid or unchanging. During the planning stage, the teacher identifies her/his focus for action research. The teacher's original questions should be written down. The teacher should identify actions and activities which might lead to an improvement of a given situation. After reviewing the concerns and actions, the teacher should select one area for her/his research. Kemmis suggests that the teacher attend to the folowing criteria in selecting a final topic for action research;

How important the issue is to you....
How important it is for your students...
What opportunities there are to explore the area...
Who might be interested in helping...
The constraints (practical and political) of your situation...
The manageability of the task. (Kemmis 1981)

The topic for research should be written as a simple question. Although the question may change during the process of action research, initially it should be very specific, relatively small, and clearly identified.

Once the question is defined the teacher begins to develop a flexible plan of action. This plan should encourage the teacher to think and act beyond her present constraints and past solutions. As part of the planning process many teachers collaborate with other teachers. This collaboration will help clarify the question, as well as broaden the planning options.

Two: Action

Once an initial plan has been identified, the teacher puts that plan into action in her classroom. At this time the teacher may run into unexpected constraints and the plan may need to be altered. During the action phase, the teacher is applying a plan that she believes will produce some change in her practice and her understanding of her current situation.

Three: Observation

During the action phase of the project, the teacher (and other adults) are observing what is happening. She is recording these results in a way that will be most helpful to her when she enters the reflection phase.

Four: Reflection

During this segment of action research, the teacher is reflecting on the action that has occurred. She is looking at the data that was collected and trying to understand what happened and why it happened the way it did. The teacher is also looking for changes that may have occurred as a result of her actions. Teachers often collaborate at this stage in order to get a wider range of ideas for planning the next activity.

Reflection is a time for evaluating. The teacher must decide whether the results of the action were helpful and if the results will assist her in answering her research question. If the collected data are not useful, she will need to identify a more applicable collection tool.

At this point action research begins another cycle. After studying the data and reflecting once again on her original 'question', the teacher designs a new plan of action or alters her current plan. This cycle continues until the teacher feels a change has occurred and her question has been answered or until she determines that her original question needs to be revised.

A PERSONAL CASE STUDY

The focus for my action research project took several weeks to narrow to one question. I had three general concerns that were equally interesting to me. They included; 1) How can I move my class more effectively from working concretely to abstractly in math? 2) How can I be more productive and helpful in my supervision of a student teacher? 3) What can be done to improve the attitude of cooperation among the children in the classroom?

My rational for selecting the third question was based on four points:

1) The children in my class have a difficult time working and playing together cooperatively. We spend far too much time solving inter-personal problems with little carry over from problem to problem.

2) The social groups in the class are strongly defined and closed.

3) I have read articles about cooperative activities but have not found the time to organize a sequence of lessons.

4) I wanted to continue the thinking about cooperation that had begun the semester before with my student teacher.

Although my action research project was focused on cooperation, I continued to gather data and ideas to address the other three concerns as well. Kemmis's Action Research Planner (1981) and McTaggarts(1982) were helpful sources for me at each stage of this project.

For the first two weeks I tried isolated cooperative activities with small groups. Following these two weeks a framework for the remainder of my project emerged. The framework consisted of the identification of at least one block of time each week for the introduction of a specific cooperation skill, a small group activity to apply that skill, and a class discussion which focused on how the children worked together. I selected a time when there were three adults available to assist in data collection (this included a student teacher, an assistant teacher, a parent or another staff person in the school).

In addition to my action research project, my student teacher for this semester was also carrying out an action research project. She formulated her question, " How can I increase my confidence and become more effective in front of a group of children?". One segment of our planning sessions was dedicated to the development of our action research. Although our questions were very different we were able to collaborate, assist and support one another. In the first cycle, her plan was simply to gain more experience in front of a group. After reflection she recognized the need to also develop a more thorough understanding of each subject area. During this cycle she concentrated on becoming more knowledgeable of the subjects and lesson preparation. In the final cycle, her performance was improved by preparing concise outlines to which she could refer during the delivery of her lessons. As we worked through these cycles, I was encouraged in my own work to see the progress that could be made.

The data collection for my project consisted of 1) daily recordings noting social patterns, 2) anecdotal records of what children were doing and saying in the structured group activities, 3) samples of group projects, and 4) tapes of children talking about working together at various times during the semester.

During the first week we recorded what each child was doing, who they were working with, and if they were working cooperatively. After 12 observations we noted several patterns. There were four very closed social groups of two or three children. There were six children who floated in and out of groups or worked alone. All of the groups were gender exclusive and all groups were mixed in age (the classroom age range is six through eight).

This initial data reassured me that my question about cooperation was a valuble one. I then began to organize my project following the action research format of plan, act, observe, and reflect. What follows is a sampling of my project, including portions of the journal that I kept during this time.

PLAN: I would introduce a simple problem for five small groups of children to solve.

ACT: I arranged children in groups of four (two girls, two boys) and gave each group one photograph related to an Olympic sport (our topic of study). The group was to work together, create a title for the picture and write their title under the picture. After the activity we would share all of the results with the class. I instructed the adults to listen, watch, and record what each group did. The adults were not to be involved.

OBSERVE: After 15 minutes of work, three groups were still deciding who would do the writing and two groups were actually at task. Twenty-five minutes into the activity, two groups had turned the activity over to a 'leader', two groups were frustrated and fighting, and the fifth group had dropped the task and was doing something completely unrelated.

After thirty minutes we discussed what had happened. The children were in agreement with Jacob's comment, "We should have worked alone...it would have been better, faster and nobody would have been in fights". The class saw little value in the activity. They did not think we should try it again. They were freely blaming others for the problems that arose.

REFLECT: The picture-titling activity was a disaster. All of the adults were shocked at how challenging this simple task had been. It was difficult for adults to watch and not step in to help.

I was confused about what to do next. I hadn't found a curriculum or teachers' guide to give me specific activities or lessons to try. Are there skills that I should teach about cooperation or should children struggle through and discover the process?

PLAN/ACT: I would provide another problem for the same small groups of children. Our unit of study was Women in History. The task was to compile a list of three jobs that all of their mothers did. Before the groups began, the class generated ideas about making a group decision. The same adults recorded the actions of the small groups.

OBSERVE: As the small groups began to work, three children emerged as group leaders. Most groups made decisions by random selections or trial and error. The groups worked positively and productively. There was enthusiasm and cheering in groups as they reached consensus. All of the groups had successfully completed the task in 25 minutes.

REFLECT: At this point I was unable to differentiate why my first activity was so difficult and the second activity had gone so smoothly. I was unable to find answers through my usual resources and was hoping to find someone with whom to collaborate.

I spoke with a colleague about the Johnsons' work in cooperative education. Noting their work, he attributed the success of the second activity to the fact that there was a specific set of answers to the problem, and in the first activity the solutions were open ended. I read Circles of Learning (Johnson et al. 1984) before planning the next lesson. The book was helpful in giving me a background in current beliefs about cooperative education, however, it did not provide specific activities to try.

PLAN/ACT: I explained to the class some of the 'roles' that people assume in successful groups such as recorder, observer, encourager and checker. I assigned roles to some of the children who I thought would understand and be able to handle them. I asked the adults to be prepared to evaluate each child's participation at the end of the lesson. The activity was to list three things that are good about having a 'loft' in our room, list two problems with the loft (there had been several during the past week) and finally, vote whether or not the loft should be 'closed'.

OBSERVE: Children talked about their assigned roles. There was some confusion and disagreement about these roles, which resulted in limited participation and time at task. Four children were aided by the roles and were more involved than usual. Two groups which had strong, positive leaders were able to work together, apply their roles, and complete the task. One group was taken over by one child and the fifth group argued about their roles most of the work time and reached no solutions.

In the post-discussion, children described their groups by saying: "It wasn't good", "It was the same and as horrible as that other time", "I wish we could do these projects alone...it would be better". The adults were hesitant to share their reactions. They had a difficult time finding anything positive to say about most children's involvement. They were unwilling to share negative comments.

REFLECT: The role-playing was too confusing for most of the children. I questioned the appropriateness of using the theories I had read about with young children. It was difficult for me to create lessons where I could apply what I had read. I was losing hope in being able to improve the cooperative spirit in the room.

The daily collections of children's social patterns had shown small changes. The closed social groups remained basically closed; however, children were more receptive to include others if an adult suggested they do so.

I shared my project with another colleague. She helped me realize that I was approaching the problem at a level that was too advanced for this age group (something that I was feeling also). I then read two articles about the impact of children's play on group problem solving. Re-encouraged, I decided to continue teaching group skills and roles starting at a more appropriate level.

PLAN: Our classroom topic of study was map-reading. The groups were to design an imaginary map that included a title, a map key, an island, and a lake. Each group was given one paper on which to work. The lesson before this activity related to the difference between criticizing peoples' ideas and criticizing the people themselves. We also talked about ways to include everyone in a group activity. We did not role-play nor did we include worksheets.

ACT: Within five minutes, all of the groups had decided what their maps would be about, and had selected what each child's task would be. Most groups talked through problems as they arose without much debate. The groups were all compromising and including each member.

In the post-discussion, I asked one person from each group to report on their group and mention one good thing each member had done. The adults also gave reactions about the groups they had observed.

OBSERVE/REFLECT: The lesson was a success. Children had applied new skills. The ideas to use children's feedback was a good one. Their observations of each other were fair and in most cases accurate. The adults enjoyed watching the process and recorded many supportive comments. We found it interesting to note that two groups had assigned 'roles' to their group members. They did not apply these roles in any way. Our talk about including everyone's participation in a group had a positive effect.

PLAN/ACT: Before our next activity, the class listened to a recording of the children I had made during a work period. We listened for compromise and made a list of cooperative comments.

The activity was to build a structure using Lego, blocks, sand, etc. There was to be only one structure per group and it needed to include several features (a bridge, a tunnel...). Children chose the medium with which they wanted to build. The groups were formed according to the medium selections.

OBSERVE: The new grouping process was successful. Children in most cases selected the medium they wanted to work with rather than the friends with whom they wanted to work. Most children seemed willing to work with anyone. Four children were initially unhappy when they realized none of their 'friends' were in their group.

After the work time, the class looked at each group's work. The groups talked about their structures and how their decisions were made. Children listened and asked questions of the groups. Three groups solved their task by working independently (near one another), talking about the project, and at the end putting the parts together. Two groups decided what they would do first and worked together throughout the activity.

REFLECTION: During this session my student teacher wrote, "I think everyone is finally getting the hang of this. They all know that they must include everyone to be successful and if there is a problem they know what to do to make it go smoother". Her comments were similar to the other adults' notes. Overall, we noted that groups of children were working together more successfully. Also, the children were genuinely interested in each other's projects.

PLAN: I provided a problem for the group to solve that required the more skilled children to assist the less skilled children (one component of the Johnsons' work includes being responsible for your group's understanding).

The groups were given a state map and were asked to locate places using the map's grid system. (We had been studying coordinate systems in math).

ACT: The children reacted in a wide variety of ways to this new task. In two groups, the children that understood the task worked alone, rather than helping the others. Three groups worked

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cooperatively and one of these groups actually developed teacher/student roles. That group's leader took the map, taught a lesson, called on children to participate and had the group do the map activity together.

In the post discussion, reactions were mixed. Some children said their groups worked well together, others felt left-out. The adults described it as a success. They mentioned children were learning new things together, solving problems together, concentrating on the same tasks, and making decisions that included everyone.

REFLECT: I was pleased to see how cooperatively the children could work together. The more skilled children were able to teach others; however, there was a notable lack of patience and support given to the lesser skilled peers.

Over the next few weeks we continued to do weekly cooperation activities. I continued to vary the groupings so that the children would experience a variety of dynamics. I realized a number of factors that contributed to group cooperation in my classroom. The tasks should not be too broad or open-ended and should be preceeded by a discussion about working together. The activity should be multi-leveled such that each child is challenged yet can be successful. Also, active participation should be emphasized.

PLAN/ACT: Our most recent activity was similar to the first activity we had done several months before. The activity was for each group to select a title for a photograph.

OBSERVE: As we observed this lesson, we noted all children were submitting title suggestions for their groups. The members freely evaluated one another's suggestions, they kept phrases or words they liked, and they eliminated things not agreed upon. In all of the groups, compromise and cooperation came freely and the activity was completed within ten minutes.

REFLECT: I taped discussions with each group about their progress. We compared the first and most recent activities. Though months had passed, the difficulties of the first activity were instantly recalled by nearly everyone. Each child then expressed how much better the later activity had gone with comments such as: "We were quicker", "We worked together better", "We tried to cooperate more and we didn't argue", "Everyone agreed", "We just got along", "We all did something, everyone was helping". "The picture was just easier", "We didn't have any problems, everyone said the part they liked, then we agreed".

The class and I were in agreement that their groups worked more cooperatively now. Sarah and Peter nicely summarized the progress as they told me, "It just happened, we just hadn't worked in groups before, we needed the practice...We can work together better now".

EVALUATING THE ACTION RESEARCH PROCESS

Personal Reactions as a Classroom Teacher

During my initiation to the action research process my impression was that my teaching was already incorporating the elements of action research; planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. However, actually focusing on a project, in this case the topic of cooperation, required me to carry out each of these areas more carefully and systematically than I had previously been accustomed. As a result, a number of important changes ocurred in my professional skills and belief systems.

Action research offers a teacher-centered approach to staff development. The teacher is viewed as an experienced professional fully capable of identifying, researching, and finding new solutions for the improvement of her own practice. Viewing myself as a 'researcher' in my own classroom was new to me. This attitude gave me the opportunity to balance my knowledge of educational research with my day to day experience. My confidence as a professional educator was improved as I used my own expertise to improve my teaching.

Because action research is an on-going process, it enabled me to sharpen my skills at each stage of the process. At the planning level, I came to realize that some of my planning had become rather predictable and comfortable. Engaging in this process enabled me to select a curricular area that I typically would not have afforded the time to explore. Knowing that I would have the time for longer range planning allowed me to address the important, yet challenging topic of cooperation in my clasroom. I was able to remain focused on my planning goals even though the initial sets of plans were discouragingly unsuccessful.

The cyclical nature of action research allowed me to test and retest activities over a span of time. This aspect helped counter a tendency to pass over or avoid a topic that required time to plan and act on. Just as the planning became more thorough and refined, the resulting activities were generally more dynamic. The carryover from an activity to the next related activity was apparent by the ability of the children to work together and solve problems.

This project helped discipline me to sharpen my observation skills. I gained in my ability to observe specific details without losing awareness of the overall classroom situation. Some of the data collection techniques gave me valuable insights to apply during reconnaissance. Having several adults available provided many opportunities to collect data. I found that the more specific I was with my purpose for observation the more useful the resultant data. For instance, the daily records of specific children's work and play-mate choices provided a graphic documentation of changes in social patterns. There were some unplanned benefits that resulted from our focused data collection. I was made more aware of my use of time during the day and where my attention was being required. Another benefit of our data collection was that we were beginning to observe more effectively throughout the day.

Prior to this project, the stage of 'reflection' for me consisted mostly of recording information about children and their progress. Maintaining a journal encouraged me to expand my reflections to include the nature of the teaching process as well as to note my own progress and attitudes about my profession. Because of the challenges and unpredictability of the outcomes of my activities, this project required me to deal with new feelings of vulnerability. Several times, the outcomes contradicted my beliefs about teaching and lead me to question and re-affirm my philosophy of teaching. Having broken some established patterns, I was more receptive to suggestions and observations that colleagues would offer.

Action Research at the Pre-Service Level

Action research can be used with a student teacher with any level of experience or confidence. The student teachers with whom I have worked have been introduced to action research at a university seminar where they are encouraged to enact an action research project. The students determine how much I will be involved in their projects. The more confident students seem to ask for more guidance and input from me. The less experienced students are not as prepared to reflect on their own practice. Generally, I have been more involved in the action research projects toward the end of the semester when either group's questions have become more clearly defined.

As a cooperating teacher, I find beginning student teachers wanting to know 'how their lesson went'. They seem more interested in my general reaction to their lessons than looking at a specific concern. When I use Clinical Supervision, it is difficult for students to identify a focus for observation. A familiar request is, "Watch the whole lesson and tell me how I did". With urging, they can select a focus; however, a consistency is lacking from observation to observation. As a result there is little carry over from lesson to lesson.

Identifying a focus for action research can be difficult for student teachers in that there are so many aspects of their teaching that they would like to develop and/or change. Action research begins with a prioritization of these concerns and provides a framework for the cooperating teacher to help select a meaningful question. If the students have not developed a philosophy or general 'feeling' about how they work best with children, they will need careful guidance and support as they begin to identify their focus.

As the student teacher seeks to identify a question for action research, she begins to narrow in on one aspect of her teaching and focuses less on 'how it went'. Because action research requires us to revisit and revise one question, we are not able to skip randomly from topic to topic. Action research provides student teachers with the opportunity to work with one skill to the point of being confident and knowledgeable.

Students who are doing action research tend to ask more questions about teaching. These questions are often related to their own thinking about their work. They ask for help in understanding the results of their lessons, they ask how they could do things differently, and they question me about how I make decisions. This questioning often leads them to evaluate their own beliefs about teaching. One student teacher and I spent many hours discussing the right for teachers to impose changes on children. At this stage she did not believe teachers had this right. While collecting data for her action research project on stereotypic activity choices, she observed boys consistently choosing building activities and girls choosing art related activities. She organized activities in which she 'required' all children to try a variety of activities. The children responded to her "imposition' without question and they participated eagerly. The student teacher was answering her own question and had begun to re-evaluate her beliefs. Later, in her journal, she wrote, "It is important to continue to require that all of the students experience a wide range of activities. Through such repeated exposure, they will hopefully reach a point where they will choose activities of their liking and will not attribute activities with boyness or girlness".

The process of collecting data encourages pre-service teachers to step beyond their own delivery of lessons and begin observing how children are receiving the lessons. After several days of having children confused at the end of her lessons, a student teacher began to blame the children for

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not listening. Because of the focus of her action research project, I was able to direct her to record the children's conversations as they began to work. She discovered that the children had a different understanding of what they had been told to do. With that specific information, she began to plan her directions more carefully, to write more legibly, and to use a vocabulary that the children could comprehend.

Action Research : A Partnership

When my student teacher and I were both doing action research, a unique support system emerged. I found that much of our conversation was directly related to our projects. Regularly we would draw one another's attention to an activity that concerned our questions. When she saw a 'new' group of children working together she would record it and share it with me at a later time. In the same manner, I was able to record observations to help her on her research. Because we shared the same 'language' and were involved in one another's projects, it was easy to collect helpful data observed throughout the day and not just during scheduled observation.

When I work with a student teacher, our discussions generally center around the student and her needs. We rarely discuss my concerns or lessons. In this case we were both involved in action research and our discussions were two-sided. We collaborated extensively and became comfortable sharing our observations and beliefs. Our dual research allowed us to form a "partnership" which I believe is unique to the typical student/cooperating teacher relationship. The support and encouragement that I gained through our collaboration also relieved to a degree my sense of isolation.

When student and cooperating teachers are involved in action research both feel vulnerable, both are taking risks, and both are looking for change. This commonality can lead to a more equal relationship. As my student teacher and I worked along-side one another on our projects, she observed me questioning, experimenting, and evaluating my practice. Similarly, sharing her struggles reminded me of the vast amount of learning required at each step in becoming a teacher. Hopefully, these observations will remind both of us that teacher education is and should be a career long process.

Summary

Action research incorporates many of the qualities of an 'ideal' staff development program. It is individualized and can be used by a teacher at any developmental level. It assumes teachers are knowledgable and gives them power to make decisions. It can be carried out collaboratively. It is an on-going process and for that reason can be more effective than a typical one day in-service presentation. As Vergeront (1987) sums up action research:

> Classroom action research recognizes and values the real-life nature of the classroom. It is exploratory in nature and reaches toward discovery, at its center is understanding. Like teaching, classroom action research is long term and continuous. It moves forward, seeks improvement, and effects change."

One of the more significant qualities of action research for me is that it puts the teacher in the position of accepting more responsibility for her own professional growth.

It is my opinion that action research could be incorporated more extensively in schools as one dimension of the staff development programs. It should not necessarily replace programs that exist but can offer another approach or supplement current staff development. Time should be provided for teachers who are involved in action research for planning and collaboration. School administrators could become involved in classroom action research by organizing, supporting and participating in research projects. The administrator in my school assisted in data collection and provided support and guidance during periods of reconnaissance.

Learning about action research should be included in pre-service programs. It should not be viewed as an additional assignment during the final practice, rather it should be integrated throughout the pre-service sequence. Because of the continuity of focus and process, action research provides an opportunity for the cooperating teacher to link with the university. I was able to communicate more effectively with the student and her supervisor because of our common language and identified focus. I also found it beneficial to be working on an action research project myself. The insights that I gained from my own project helped in my ability to direct my student teacher's experience and growth.

Action research provides teachers at all levels a valuable form of professional development. Further research involving its use with pre-service students and cooperating teachers together is needed. Incorporating action research at both the pre-service and in-service levels will reinforce the valued quality of life-long reflection and change in the teaching profession.

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Early Risks: Transition from Culturally/Linguistically Diverse Homes to Formal Schooling

Esther K. Leung

Going to school for the first time is exciting for young children. It is the beginning of a wonderful life: new friends, new authority figures, novel environment, expanded horizon, and unprecedented discovery and learning opportunities. But, unfortunately, to many culturally and/or linguistically diverse youngsters, going to school also means new risks in their young lives

The transition from home to formal schooling often signals the end of

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insulated security and innocence for the culturally/linguistically diverse, for children are generally perceived and accepted as children at home, not as members of particular social groups. Only after culturally/linguistically diverse children have entered school or have had certain encounters with mainstream culture do they become aware of their deviance and hence their minority status. From then on, they may experience years of stress, confusion, conflict, and defeat, both in and outside of school.

Schooling should be neither painful nor intolerable to young children regardless of their social-cultural affiliations. Certainly teachers do not plan for minority children's failures, frustrations, and high dropout rates (Fradd & Correa, 1989; U.S. Bureau of Census, 1988). Still, not understanding the dynamics involved in minority young children's transition from home to school, many teachers, and parents too, fail to intervene and to prevent tragedies from happening. In fact, they may unknowingly contribute to the youngsters' school and social problems. The purpose of this paper is, therefore, to address the risks inherent to culturally/linguistically diverse children's early transition, and to describe briefly how teachers and parents can assist them through this critical period of their lives.

Risk Factors Inherent to Early Transition

> "Mother, I feel like an animal...," confided a six-year-old Asian American who had just started school; then he pulled the bedsheet over his face and sobbed. This continued for many nights.
>
> "I have no friends. I want to play with them, but I can't....I wish I have a friend," lamented another minority kindergartner.
>
> "If I am good, when I go to Heaven, will God change me into an American?" asked a minority boy who had attended four months of nursery school. His face was full of expectancy, while his voice was almost apologetic (Leung, 1975).
>
> "Ma, don't speak Chinese! It's embarrassing!" a preschooler rebuked his mother while shopping in a grocery store.
>
> "I came from a Black family in a small town in the Mid-West. We were about the only Blacks in town. But I never knew that I was Black until I went to school. There I suddenly discovered that my hands were different. They were black! And I thought that they were dirty. So, everyday after school

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> I went home, turned on the faucet, and kept washing my hands with soap and hot water. Yet the color wouldn't go away .... Finally I gave up. But I hid and cried almost every day after school for the rest of my first-grade year. My folks did not know about it. I kept my fears and shame to myself — too hard to tell. Nobody knew how miserable I was that first year of school!" a counseling professor poignantly recalled her initial school encounter (Henderson, 1984).

One after another, culturally/linguistically diverse young children experience troubles as they start school. Even at an early stage of intellectual and language development, some of them can vividly and explicitly describe their emotions and the source of their problems. Clearly, perceived physical, linguistic, and cultural differences are risk factors threatening minority young children's psychosocial as well as cognitive well-being as they make the transition from family-focused to family-and-school-focused experiences. If these perceptions are not adjusted, they may further lead to identity crisis and acculturation problems, which could be exacerbated and complicated by uninformed and insensitive adults and peers in the children's school and home environments. The following explains how these risk factors function in the lives of culturally/linguistically diverse children.

1. Physical Differences

Culturally and/or linguistically diverse children tend to be ethnic minorities. As such, they frequently have visibly different physical features and skin color that readily distinguish them from their majority counterparts. Personal observations and research (Jones & Sisk, 1967; Leung, 1988) indicate that children as young as two and three can perceive and discriminate against atypical physical variables. Therefore, young ethnic children and their age-mates entering preschool can become aware of their easily discernable physical differences.

The consciousness of their physical differences may upset minority young children's self-image, which may already be in a precarious state as most children's self-images are when they first enter school, for they have just been changed from familiar and secure home surroundings into a strange environment called school, where they have to adapt, adjust, and negotiate approval from a new set of significant others. Minority young children's separation trauma, moreover, can be aggravated and compounded with their awakening to deviance and minority status. Meanwhile, their school peers and authority figures may also quickly observe their physical differences, and that does not make social acceptance easy, especially for children whose ethnic group is small or unfamiliar in a community. Prejudice aside, humans do possess the instinct for survival and self-defense. A strange sight or the unknown induces fear and caution. Therefore, without proactive planning or intervention, it is just not easy for minority young children to gain acceptance as they first enter school. And this experience can jolt and devastate minority children, especially if they have hitherto not been subjected to discrimination or rejection by their family members and friends.

Grappling with self-image and social status, minority young children must also cope with what Guskin and Guskin (1970) called the "psychology of difference." According to these social psychologists, human nature is such that no one can always conform with or always differ from the norm while maintaining emotional stability. Minority children, therefore, could be severely distressed once they realize that they can never change their deviant physical characteristics. Nor can they change their minority status by changing their environment, since they do not have control over attending school or the demographics of their surroundings. Physical differences, therefore, pose formidable risks for young children in transition from culturally/linguistically diverse homes to formal school.

However, not all culturally/linguistically diverse youngsters are physically different from the dominant racial group, as cultural and linguistic diversities also exist within the latter. Thus physical difference is not a constant risk factor during early transition for all culturally and/or linguistically diverse children. In addition, minority young children as well as all preschoolers tend not to notice their own racial-specific features and do not become self-conscious about them. As long as ethnic children stay at home or are among their own, they are not minority, and there is no physical deviance. But outward appearance becomes conspicuous where minority children are in situations where they become one or few among many. And if physical features are also linked to social prejudice and stigma, then sensitivity to one's deviant appearance and related differential reception can lead to serious self-rejection, such as evidenced by the above vignettes. For even disadvantaged Black children viewed themselves favorably until they were bussed out of their neighborhood to be integrated in predominantly white suburban schools. Then their self-concept plummeted as they became minority in number (Soares & Soares, 1969).

Finally, the impact of being physically different is not uniform. Not all minority children are equally sensitive or perceptive about their predicaments. Nor do children of various temperaments react the same way to similar life experiences (Peterson, 1987). Generally speaking, perceived physical, linguistic, or various cultural differences have less potential as risk factors in cosmopolitan areas where diversities are more prevalent, but they can be detrimental to keen, observant, or sensitive minority youngsters in provincial or closed communities.

2. Linguistic Differences

Young children with linguistic differences are at-risk of communication, social, and academic problems. When only Standard English is considered as language, linguistically diverse children are likely found to be slow in language development if their social interaction and school performance are impeded when they first enter mainstream schools. Language diversities may include (a) non-English speaking; (b) low-English-proficiency, when children cannot communicate (listen and/or speak) adequately in English; (c) English as a second language, when children can communicate adequately in English, though not necessarily as fluently as in their native tongue; and (d) dialects, with such articulation and/or syntax deviations that make them unacceptable as Standard English.

English is the dominant language in the United States, and schools are generally monolingual. Many schools, therefore, measure students' proficiency in English as the sole criterion for language development. Youngsters are at-risk of being mislabeled as language delayed if they cannot communicate in English as adequately as the norm—their Standard English-speaking age-mates. Whether children are proficient or deficient in other languages or dialects is often not taken into consideration, except where there are adequate bilingual education or English as a second language (ESL) programs (Bowman, 1989; Cummins, 1989). Being labeled as language delayed is misleading at best. Linguistically diverse children's need for English development may not be met, while a false diagnosis could lead to placement in an inappropriate educational program and self-fulfilling prophecy. Thus, as a result of being treated as language or communication disordered, the linguistically different may indeed become disordered.

On the other hand, although linguistic diversity is not linguistic deficiency, linguistically diverse children may need time to attain English proficiency. Initial school performance could therefore be stunted, especially for children who have to learn English as a second language where there are neither bilingual nor ESL programs. Furthermore, linguistically diverse children often have communication problems in schools where Standard English is the only mode of communication. Interpersonal relationships are hampered and social activities are restricted, at least at the beginning, as children have difficulties communicating with peers and teachers and vice versa. Communication difficulties alone or in addition to psychosocial predicaments prevent young children from learning and achieving socially and academically to their full potential. It is not uncommon, therefore, that linguistically diverse children are less scholastically inclined and perform poorly in school, planting the seed for future school failures and early dropouts (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1988). Language is not the only causal factor for school problems, but when linguistic differences are not properly addressed early on, some children may begin to accumulate social and academic deficits from the day they enter school until they leave.

Besides communication and school problems, language differences can also impinge on young children's self-concept and emotions. Children can be embarrassed by the foreign tongue or the nonstandard English spoken by their family. They can feel inadequate if they, their family, or both, cannot communicate in English. Immigrant children from homes where English is not the first language have been observed to remain reticent and unsocial for a long time after entering school. When they are compelled to speak, they often appear hesitant and shy, as if unsure of their speech and language abilities. Unable to communicate their thoughts and wants, some linguistically diverse youngsters withdraw while some vent frustrations in anger and aggression. Or, they may be quiet and timid in school but volatile at home, reminiscent of young hearing-impaired children (Leung & Jaussi, 1989).

Linguistic differences are audibly recognizable just as physical differences are visibly discernable. They readily distinguish the minority from the majority. Children who are troubled by perceived deviance will view their linguistic discrepancies as stigma and may have a hard time accepting their language performance and themselves (Guskin & Guskin, 1970). Likewise, children and adults who are intolerant or prejudiced against linguistic differences may continue to treat linguistically different young children unfairly and insensitively, subjecting them to risks of inferior academic, social, and emotional development.

3. Culture-based Behavioral Differences

Behaviors are governed by culture. They manifest cultural norms, values, beliefs, and practices. Therefore, behavioral characteristics of one culture group can be markedly different from those of another. Consequently children from culturally diverse groups tend to have noticeable behaviors which, similar to physical and linguistical differences, quickly differentiate them from children of the dominant culture. Since there is no absolute standard to judge social behaviors and personal conduct, and as long as the statistical model is applied to psychosocial measurement, minority young children who bring to school their home and cultural upbringings are at-risk of being considered devious (Cummins, 1989). Statistically, culturally diverse children's behaviors cannot be normal, unless their cultures approximate mainstream culture. If the behavior norm for a minority group deviates significantly from the norm of a dominant culture, it can never be the norm of the combined group. When children from such minority cultures enter school and act according to their cultural expectancy, they display atypical behaviors and appear to be abnormal. Soon the notion that there is something anomalous about themselves may emerge in minority children's minds, and they also sense dissimilarities between their new school environment and their home. Simultaneously, the age-peers become aware of minority children's strangeness, while the authority figures observe the behavioral differences.

Consciousness of abnormality without understanding the role of cultural differences can drive culturally diverse children to confusion, shame, or inaction. Similar to the linguistically different, they may hesitate to participate in school functions until they figure out what behaviors are expected and considered proper. They need time to acculturate to the behavior code and the cultural norm of the school, which is usually congruent with the dominant culture and therefore poses no major adjustment problems for majority children. Thus, young culturally different children may not appear as active, involved, and competent as their majority counterparts in early school years because of inadequate initiation, cognitive dissonance, or emotional distress. Meanwhile, teachers may reward those who demonstrate social potentials with more classroom responsibilities and learning opportunities and neglect those who are less assertive and aggressive, such as the un-acculturated minorities right at the beginning of their socialization process through public schools.

Nevertheless, culturally diverse children do exhibit culture-specific behaviors as they attend school everyday. And they are often misunderstood or rejected by their school peers because of the total impact of physical, linguistic, and cultural differences or by virtue of culture-based devious behaviors alone. Peers who are not familiar with or who are prejudiced against diversity may withhold interaction and friendship, if not practicing outright ridicule and exclusion. Minority children who are less socially inclined or adept may resign to their destiny and clam up. But those who are socially successful prior to school entrance, or who have greater need for peer relationships may not readily surrender. As they persist with friendly overtures, some of them may eventually win acceptance, yet some may experience continued resistance and consequently more hurt and anxiety. For those who keep striving for friendship and inclusion in spite of repeated rejection, they may become over-friendly, over-solicitous, or overanxious in social situations. These behaviors may backfire, and as a result, rejected children may experience further frustrations and self-depreciation, and may in fact become more socially incompetent and objectionable. If they give up trying then, they may end up as social recluses or outcasts just like the marginal children who have never opted for social inclusion since the beginning of their schooling. Or they may join the wrong crowd and become a potential liability to society.

Not being able to negotiate into one's peer circle is tragic to young lives. Unfortunately it happens frequently to culturally diverse children, contributing to their rather pervasive social maladaptation. Beginning from their early years, they may learn to deny their social needs and become isolated, while their significant others still think that they are naturally shy or antisocial. They may have to over-acculturate to compensate for their differences, so that they can attain social approval and acceptance. On the other hand, to cope with failures and tension some may develop more self-defeating behaviors, even psychosomatic reactions and irrational phobias. Some may strike back in anger and defiance with oppositional or even antisocial behaviors, and for some, the feelings of hostility or alienation from school and mainstream society germinate rapidly (Leung, 1981; 1988).

Whether it is from teachers or peers, culturally diverse children, like handicapped youngsters, generally have less than adequate opportunity for social participation and henceforth social learning (Peterson, 1987). Therefore, it may take culturally diverse children longer to develop social skills and relationships in school, and even after longer periods of school adjustment, teachers still find them falling behind the mainstream or non-handicapped peers at comparable stages of social development (Leung, 1975).

Teachers ought to be cognizant of the behavioral characteristics of various culture groups and the hassles that culturally diverse children endure as they are being socialized into more than one culture at once. But many teachers do not know or understand. Hence they may erroneously identify minority children as behaviorally disordered or socially incompetent, and again activate the mechanism for self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American children whose cultures are more group-oriented have often been viewed as field-dependent, over-compliant, timid, indecisive, lacking leadership, or downright incompetent (Cheung, 1989; Little Soldier, 1989; Ramirez, 1988; Valero-Figueira, 1988; Yee, 1988). Considered as lacking leadership skills, a young minority child may be bypassed when opportunity for leadership arises.

Mistaking group-consciousness for field-dependency, teachers may feed the dependency and perpetuate it. Or they may inculcate culturally incompatible behaviours such as self-assertion to combat over-dependence, thus setting the stage for confusion and conflict as children relate to adults in their home and community. Another example is Black children's traditional oral and physical expressiveness. Although these outstanding behaviors are sometimes phenomenally rewarded in sports and entertainment, they have not been tapped to enhance school performance. Instead, Black children are often punished and branded as behavior problems because of their unique demeanors (Parker, 1988).

Minority children do not only risk mistreatment socially but also academically when teachers fail to realize and use culture-specific behaviors. Learning is less efficient and motivating if the delivery system is not geared towards young children's culture and behavioral styles. Black children may have more success, for example, if teaching strategies are compatible with their behavioral characteristics. As long as cultural diversity is ignored in teaching and learning activities, minority children will have less satisfaction in scholastic achievement. And if culturally/linguistically diverse children have to go through such social, emotional, and academic hazards as soon as they begin school, there is little wonder about why they excel in school avoidance behaviors.

4. Acculturation Dilemma

School adjustment is not the only problem facing young children as they make the transition from culturally/linguistically diverse homes to school. They are at risk of adjustment problems at home, too, once they begin acculturation — a process of modifying their own cultural views and behaviors through adapting and assimilating into school culture. Acculturation is a slow, almost unnoticeable process when there is no drastic difference between two cultures. But for the culturally diverse, there are often significant gaps between home and school values, conduct codes, customs, and practices. The disparities are especially striking with newer immigrant and refugee families. Youngsters from homes of extremely divergent cultures doubtless experience profound culture shocks and adaptation problems as they first begin school. Even after initial turmoil and acculturation proceed, there are constant and prolonged conflicts between school and home values systems, traditions, social roles, and lifestyles (Leung, 1988).

As young children begin to adapt and acculturate to school, they may find that their behaviors are not acceptable to their families, while their families have also become increasingly strange and unacceptable to them. Since they now have two sets of significant others to please, they will continually experience emotional tension and loyalty battles. On the one hand, they have been bonded to and are still dependent on their family; on the other, approval by teachers and peers is becoming more and more important to school-age children. Somehow they must resolve or accommodate cognitive dissonance and choose sides with regard to values and beliefs. Be they perplexed or astute, they must assume and play their subordinate roles in school and at home, sometimes according to contrary norms and codes. They may be subjected to child rearing practices which can seriously contradict traditional American ways and school practices, while behaviors cultivated, valued, and expected in school can significantly undercut family upbringings and be totally unacceptable at home and in the ethnic community. Youngsters who exemplify model conduct at home may be misfits or self-destructive at school, and youngsters who become popular with their school peers and authority figures may be horrors to their family members. To adjust to both cultures, children have to shift roles and behaviors day in and day out, and they will not be able to meet all standards and expectations in all settings at all times. Under constant and enormous pressure to please and to conform, young children's emotional well-being will sooner or later take its toll (Leung, 1981). Acculturation, therefore, is a high-risk, dilemma-filled process for culturally/linguistically diverse children.

How young children begin acculturation during the early school years sets the tone for the rest of the process. Youngsters who handle it adequately can be on the way to biculturation and can function effectively in both their ethnic groups and mainstream society. Youngsters who have problems with both cultures, adhering to neither but deviating from both, will likely become marginal persons. They seldom can function well in society. Those who are less comfortable with mainstream American ways and who choose to stick with their ethnic culture tend to be traditionalists who remain outsiders in mainstream America in spite of geography. Then, youngsters who are embarrassed by their own cultural identity may choose to over-acculturate to school and the mainstream. They may have won acceptance by the majority, though consciously or subconsciously they always feel inferior about their origin (Leung, 1988). With these implications for future social competencies, young children during early transitional years from culturally/linguistically diverse homes to school have much at stake as they begin their acculturation process.

5. Identity Crisis

Closely related to acculturation, culturally/linguistically diverse children often have problems finding their identity as they make the transition from home to mainstream society — the school. Again, this is more acute for small minority groups whose children rarely see their kind, whether in real life, media representation, or in school curriculum materials.

Unable to identify with someone besides their own family members, minority young children may become insecure and all the more concerned about their physical, linguistic and/or cultural differences which come to bear upon them at a tender age. Cognitively they need to define who they are. Socially and emotionally they need to be identified with someone of their own origin, with what the majority group values, or with someone who has high social profile. Even if there is no role model of status, just to associate with more of one's kind will ease self-doubt and aloneness. Thus minority young children living in areas with very few group members tend to have identity crises, and they lean toward over-acculturation to overcompensate for their identity problems. However, over-acculturation is not an effective or a healthful coping strategy. It is self-rejection in disguise. Overacculturated young children have less than optimal emotional robustness, and their identity problems tend to be recurrent, always there to haunt them.

6. Uninformed and Insensitive Significant Others

Significant others in young children's world include parents, siblings and extended family members at home, and teachers, related personnel, and peers at school. In the school setting, teachers make or break young children's emotional world, which provides the security basis for academic adventures. Teachers are the models for fair-mindedness and accepting social behaviors. They engineer a classroom atmosphere conducive to social and academic development and structure teaching-learning activities to match individual and culture-specific learning styles as well as learning needs, including language and social behaviors. Above all, teachers in a multicultural society such as the U.S. need to be cognizant of cultural differences to avoid misjudging and misidentifying cultural-specific behaviors as disorders. They possess generalized information about groups and categories, yet do not stereotype. But what if teachers themselves are uninformed and insensitive to the uniqueness and needs of culturally/linguistically diverse young children? Instead of being their advocates, they will mislead or even cause these youngsters to fail and to suffer. Instead of teaching young children to accept diversities and to learn from one another, they may model undemocratic and asocial behaviors for all to imitate.

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Uninformed and insensitive teachers are, therefore, a risk factor for culturally/linguistically diverse young children in transition.

Uninformed and insensitive schoolmates can also unintentionally jeopardize culturally/linguistically diverse children's social integration, emotional health, and academic pursuit. Not understanding and being unwilling to accept differences, they cannot provide the peer support and guidance that often surpass adults' influence in terms of facilitating minority children's acculturation. More tragically, they may victimize and destroy minority children's self-esteem, emotional equilibrium, and social integrity without realizing the ramifications of their interaction or non-interaction with the latter.

Not understanding and being insensitive to their children's predicaments, parents, and other family members, too, may fail to help young children through the most hazardous period of their lives — the transition from home to a culturally/linguistically different environment. Sometimes they may make it even more difficult for their children by imposing unreasonable demands and false accusations concerning their children's changing values, views, conduct, and other behaviors. They sometimes constitute the extra burdens that their children in transition have to bear, and they are the risk factor that may cause their developing young children to stumble.

Prevention, Intervention, and Support

Culturally/linguistically diverse children can have exciting and wonderful learning experiences as they enter school. They can grow emotionally, socially, and cognitively regardless of diversities if those risk factors can be dissolved or neutralized through preventive, interventionist, and supportive measures.

A careful examination of the risk factors reveals that only physical differences cannot and should not be eradicated, while uninformed, insensitive significant others are the most damaging. When the latter interact with other factors, they may have far-reaching adverse effects on developing minority children. Yet these insensitive significant others are not only the easiest to dispose of, but they can also be turned around to provide the most powerful prevention, intervention, and support, rendering all other risk factors insignificant or impotent. For when significant others are knowledgeable, understanding, and supportive, all linguistic, behavioral, and even physical differences can become assets rather than liabilities towards the wholesome development of both minority and majority young children. All children will be enriched by diversities while none will suffer from being a minority. The problems of acculturation and identity should never exist if diversities are tolerated or celebrated. Even if problems arise, significant others can intervene by recognizing and defusing problems on the one hand, while being enabling and facilitating agents to at-risk minority young children on the other. Therefore, to counteract culturally/ linguistically diverse young children's transitional problems, one must begin with the significant others in their school and home environments. The following is a brief list of what schools and school districts, as well as teachers, parents, and peers can do to prevent problems, intervene, and support minority young children during their early transition:

1. Schools must match teaching-learning activities with cultural preferences and unique behavioral characteristics. For instance, choose a cooperative learning approach for Hispanic and Native Indian young children (Slavin, 1983); allow for physical and rhythmic activities to strengthen rote learning, and quick wits and language facility for task presentation for Black pupils; and use bibliotherapy with Asian children for social and personal enhancement (Leung, 1980).
2. School districts should provide bilingual education such as ESL according to need. Do not insist that low-English-proficiency children repeat their faulty or unclear English expressions, and refrain from ridiculing or rebuking children for their language dysfluency.
3. Early childhood teachers must have coursework devoted solely to multicultural issues including principles, facts, and pedagogy. They must demand such training if colleges of education fail to prepare teachers for the increasingly diversified American citizenry.
4. Teachers must seek up-to-date information concerning the current cultural and linguistic minority groups in their classrooms, including behavioral and linguistic characteristics and preferred teaching-learning styles. They must know the implications of biculturism and bilingualism and the best practice to educate such young children.
5. Teachers must select curricular materials that reflect diversities and provide identity for minority children. For example, use an ethnic artifact for circle activities; relate American festivities to ethnic counterparts such as Thanksgiving in many tribes and nations; ensure all class members' representation in printed or non-printed class materials; invite minority children's family members or compatriots to class activities; read about children in other lands and tell folklores of diverse origins; and teach various folk songs and folk dances, or sing in different languages.
6. Teachers must model understanding and acceptance of differences. Prejudice against cultural and linguistic minorities is subtle. Teachers must re-examine

their attitudes and interactions with diverse social groups, so they can exemplify fairness for their pupils.

7. Teachers must also directly teach democratic behaviors and structure for minority children's social and emotional well-being. They must organize classroom activities so all children will have opportunities to practice and experience positive social roles and activities.

8. Teachers must deal with recognized social-emotional problems through discussion, counseling, bibliotherapy. Involve parents, providing them with information concerning acculturation and school expectations.

9. Teachers must cultivate open communication, mutual trust, and respect with parents. They must check for ethnocentricity and superiority complex which can hinder relationships. They may also need to work and consult with both parents and the extended family.

10. Minority parents must have the knowledge and sensitivity to guide and empower their children through early transition. They must know the nature and ramifications of biculturism, bilingualism, and the acculturation process for minority young children in American society. They must find out the traditional values and practices of public schools, so they can understand what confusion and conflicts their youngsters may encounter as they enter school and not compound or intensify their problems. They need to learn parenting skills unique to their situations during their children's early transition.

11. Parents should inoculate their children against transitional disasters by exposing them to some formal or semi-formal integrated programs before the children begin public schooling. Bilingual parents may need to let their children learn some functional English prior to school entrance to spare their children from excessive confusion, humiliation, and a disadvantage in social and academic learning.

12. Parents need to model biculturalism and allow it to happen in their homes if they want their children to be able to function well in both mainstream and minority situations.

13. Parents can learn about school values and practices by involvement with school functions which would also enhance their children's self-concept as well as social status and open the way for effectual parent-professional collaboration.

14. Parents must maintain open communication with their children to monitor for possible school-related problems. They should listen for subtle indications during conversation or watch for elusive signals in their children's behaviors since young children may not be able to recognize or explicate troubles.

15. Peers must be cognizant that diversities are not only facts of life but also the strength of America and that democracy accepts and respects individuals

equally. They must be provided with a knowledge base, behavior models, and conscientious training at the beginning of their school career from teachers charged with the socialization of young citizens.

16. Peers can practice mutual acceptance and cooperation during free play, games, team learning, and peer-tutoring. They can learn to reinforce their own social actions, such as saying to themselves, "Good. I share toys with ____ today!"

17. Peers are natural models for each other. They can facilitate minority children's acculturation since children spontaneously and rapidly imitate what they frequently see. This is especially applicable to bilingual preschoolers who can quickly acquire Standard English from peer models, given a nurturing environment.

Conclusion

Early transition from a culturally/linguistically diverse home to formal school is hazardous for many young children. Perceived physical, linguistic, and culture-based behavioral differences may cause various acculturational and identity crises, which may be complicated or exacerbated by uninformed and unsympathetic teachers, parents, and school peers. Consequently, minority young children may suffer initial setbacks or irreversible emotional, social, and academic impairments through their early school experience. Such phenomena should not exist in democracy. Teachers, parents, and children must be educated to encourage the early transition of minority young children, so early childhood schooling in diverse America can enrich the psychosocial and intellectual well-being of all children.

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Improving the Success In School of Poor Black Children

by Shirl E. Gilbert II and Geneva Gay

When the school culture comes up against the urban black culture, conflict can result. The authors suggest ways of reducing this conflict.

THE KEY TO improving success in school for poor black students is modifying the *means* used to achieve learning outcomes, not changing the intended outcomes themselves. School personnel need to set the same high academic standards and expectations for black students that they should set for all students, and then they need to hold the

Illustration by Barbara Roman

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students strictly accountable for meeting those standards. However, the means and methods used with other students are not necessarily appropriate for use with poor, urban black youths.

The means appropriate for teaching poor, urban black students differ from those appropriate for teaching other students because teaching and learning are sociocultural processes that take place within given social systems. When different social systems interact, the normative rules of procedure often conflict. This is the case when the school culture comes up against the urban black culture. Many of the instructional procedures used by schools stem from a set of cultural values, orientations, and perceptions that differ radically from those of poor black students. Therefore, a major challenge for educators who are striving to make urban black children more successful in school is to stop trying to

> use a student's home environment or social status as an excuse for poor achievement . . . [and seek instead to] understand the real importance of the school system, the classroom environment, and our own teaching activities . . . [and] get on with the business of creating classroom environments and school learning climates that promote high achievement.[1]

Since the classroom climate – the context in which teaching and learning occur – is the source of many black children's problems with school, this is a reasonable place to begin the process of change, as well. Problems develop between schoolpeople and black students on issues of cultural values, the expectations of the school, and what are considered the normal procedures of teaching and learning. Too many teachers and principals are still unaware of the areas of conflict between the culture of the school and that of children raised in urban black communities. Nor do they fully understand how their negative attitudes toward black culture can affect their own instructional behaviors and the academic performance of students. Both students' and teachers' attitudes toward and expectations about teaching and learning are major components of school climate that should be changed to improve the success of urban black students.

Teachers need to understand their own and their black students' cultural attitudes, values, and behaviors that impinge directly on the instructional process.[2] Once they have achieved this understanding, they can then modify some of the procedures for teaching and learning to better accommodate black cultural styles. This notion of changing school climate is consistent with the research on school effectiveness that found that schoolwide changes are needed to improve students' academic success, but it in no way compromises the emphasis on high academic expectations for black students.

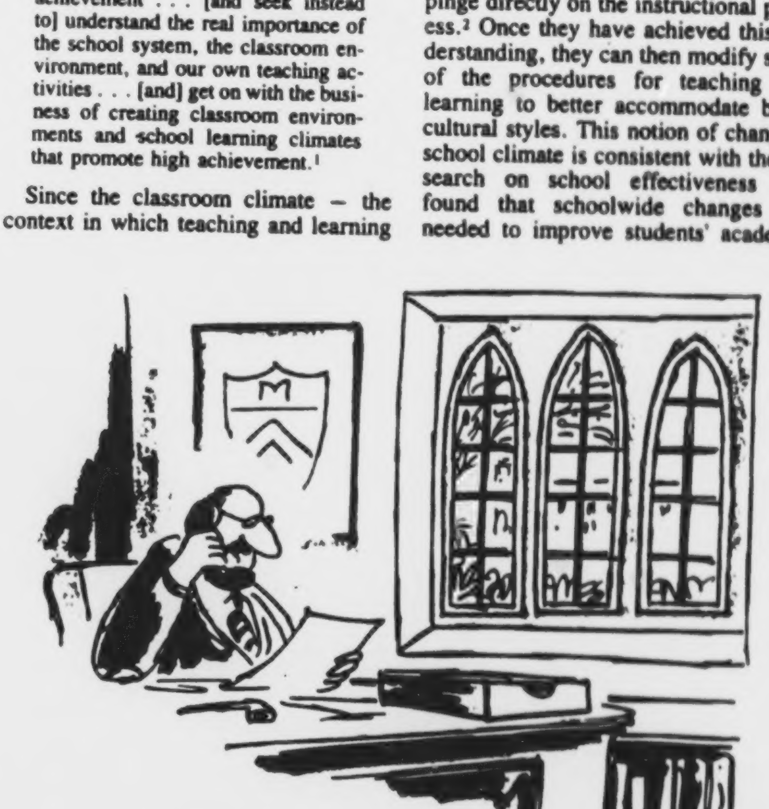
Black students place great value on efforts toward achievement; they will argue for recognition of their efforts to complete a task.

AREAS OF CULTURAL CONFLICT

Several areas of conflict between the culture of urban black students and that of the school are especially important for translating general principles of school effectiveness into the specific contexts of poor, urban black schools. These areas include learning styles, interactional or relational styles, communication styles, and perceptions of involvement.

The learning styles of black children tend to be relational and field-dependent.[3] This means that they tend to function better in cooperative, informal, and loosely structured environments, in which students and teachers work closely together to achieve common goals. The learning itself should focus on concepts and general principles – getting an overall feel for a task – rather than on minutiae. Black children tend to work together for the benefit of the group. The pace of the learning effort is set more by the momentum of the group than by some arbitrarily determined time allocated for the completion of an instructional task. Black students place great value on efforts toward achievement; they will argue for recognition of their efforts to complete a task, even though they were unsuccessful.

By comparison, the learning style normally expected and rewarded in schools is analytical and field-independent. Learning is expected to occur in a formal, rather rigidly structured en-



"Mrs. Refferton, this is Ed Spenser, dean of students. Apparently, your son Ellis has fallen through the cracks."

vironment. Achievement results from individual, and often competitive, efforts. Primary attention in instruction is given to factual details and in evaluation, to personal performance. Recognition and rewards are given for the quality of the completed task rather than for the effort expended.

One feature of the interactional style of Afro-Americans that conflicts with that of the schools is the attention to "stage setting" that precedes the performance of a task. Black Americans devote a great deal of energy to establishing the context or setting for a performance before engaging in an assignment. In the classroom this means that black students do not begin working on an academic assignment immediately after the teacher has finished giving directions. First, they must prepare themselves and the environment – create an appropriate mood and setting – for the performance. Undoubtedly, these tendencies stem from a field-dependent learning style, as well as from a cultural heritage that places high value on "performing behavior" (in the sense of dramatics).

Stage-setting behaviors may include such activities as looking over the assignment in its entirety; rearranging posture; elaborately checking pencils, paper, and writing space; asking teachers to repeat directions that have just been given; and checking the perceptions of neighboring students. To the black student these are necessary maneuvers in preparing for performance; to the teacher they may appear to be avoidance tactics, inattentiveness, disruptions, or evidence of not being adequately prepared to do the assigned task.

In any case, stage-setting uses up time and energy, and poor black youngsters end up spending less actual time on instructional tasks than their middle-class white counterparts; they also receive negative feedback from teachers more often. The effects of negative feedback and loss of on-task time are cumulative from task to task and from grade to grade, thereby increasing the chances of failure for poor black children.

The speaking and listening style of black culture is another source of misunderstanding and conflict between black students and schoolpeople. For Afro-Americans, spoken language is the primary mode of communication, whereas the schools tend to stress written communication. Generally, black youths are much more proficient in demonstrating their abilities when they can talk rather than write about them. This ability is an essential part of early socialization because black culture places a high value on oral communication. Consequently, black students are accomplished verbal performers within the rules, settings, and protocols of their own cultural communities. They learn by listening and demonstrate their learning by speaking.

Conveying messages and meanings is not the only purpose of verbal communication in the context of black culture. Of equal importance is the style of the delivery. This is why some scholars of black communication have described it as artistic, dramatic talking, in which nonverbal nuances, the placement of words, and the rhythm of speech are as important to the meaning as the words themselves.[4] In schools, when oral communication is used, its purpose is exclusively utilitarian. As with writing, school culture values directness, precision, and conciseness in speaking over stylistic flair or aesthetic flourish.

Thus there is a dual conflict in communication styles between black culture and school culture: written versus oral and direct versus dramatic. When black students are challenged to demonstrate their achievement in written form, they must first engage in a process of translation from an oral expressive mode to the written form before they can begin the actual task. Like the stage-setting process discussed above, this shifting of expressive styles takes time away from the task itself. When speaking and writing in class, black youngsters must also edit dramatics out of their presentations in order to make them more congruent with the expectations of the school. Otherwise, teachers may find black expressive styles distracting and obtrusive, and black students will receive negative feedback or find their entire communication rejected.

A fourth source of conflict between the cultural norms of the school and those of black culture has to do with the issue of "involvement" in the instructional process. The school's conception of involvement is the extent to which individual students take part in instruction according to established rules of procedure. This typically means cognitive involvement in structured environments that allow only one person at a time to participate in one activity at a time. Rarely are classrooms considered orderly and engaged when several students are talking simultaneously, when several different activities are taking place at once, or when personal involvement includes dimensions other than the cognitive (e.g., emotional or physical). Yet this kind of multimodal, multidimensional involvement is not uncommon in black homes and communities. Outside school, black youngsters are accustomed to participating in several different interactions simultaneously and to participating cognitively, affectively, and physically. They seem to have little difficulty negotiating these multiple involvements.[5]

> The effects of negative feedback and loss of on-task time are cumulative from task to task and from grade to grade.

Black students' involvement of their total selves is disconcerting to classroom teachers, who, when they invite students to become involved in classroom activities, usually mean only cognitive participation. When black children become involved affectively and physically as well, teachers are often puzzled and put off by all the emotion and movement. They see these aspects of behavior as unnecessary to the instructional process and are inclined to eliminate them for the sake of a more orderly climate for learning.

The problem is that the black students see nothing disorderly or distracting about accompanying their cognitive involvement with affective and physical involvement. To them, these are not separate components of participation at all; they form an integrated whole. When black students are forced to separate out only the cognitive component for use in the classroom, they feel that this is unnatural and find it difficult to honor the teacher's requests. This often leads to frustration and, ultimately, to withdrawal from instructional activities. Teachers misinterpret this noninvolvement as lack of preparation or lack of ability.[6]

The orderly environment that the teacher considers most desirable for learning seems dull, stagnant, and unstimulating to black students.

Conversely, the orderly environment that the teacher considers most desirable for learning seems dull, stagnant, and unstimulating to black students. These procedural expectations interfere as much with black students' attending to the substance of instruction as their procedural styles interfere with teachers' ideal notions of order and of what constitutes proper participation in instruction.

The collision of the school culture with the black culture on the procedures that surround teaching and learning can have devastating effects on both teachers' and students' academic efforts and achievements. Among the most serious are 1) the expenditure of mental energies on tasks not related to instructional substance and 2) the resulting tensions between students and teachers. The failure that black students experience at this level of interaction is also projected into the actual instruction. Teachers form opinions about the academic abilities of black students based on the problems these students have with the procedures of teaching and learning. A self-fulfilling prophecy is set in motion, as teachers expect black students to fail regardless of their actual academic potential and so adjust their own behavior in ways that help realize these expectations.

FACULTY LOUNGE

"Everything I say goes in one ear and out the other — times 30."

CHANGING THE RULES

Two processes are essential for creating culturally sensitive procedures and strategies to improve the success of black students in school. First, teachers and principals should establish a functional partnership between the black culture and the school culture. This partnership must be based on mutual aid and cooperation in making decisions about how the context of instruction will be structured for the benefit of teachers and students. Educators and parents need to inform each other of their expectations for the academic success of black students. Both parties also need to understand which aspects of those expectations are nonnegotiable, and they must mutually agree on a set of compromises for those that are negotiable.

Because both the school and the community are concerned with the academic welfare of black students, establishing a consensus on matters of achievement and accountability should not be too difficult. Once these issues have been agreed on, parents and educators can examine the procedures of schooling for possible areas of compromise between the norms of the school and those of the black community. Thereafter, parents, teachers, and principals should operate as monitors for one another, making certain that all parties are living up to their negotiated responsibilities.

The second process that is essential to the academic success of black students is developing strategies for meeting the educational mission of the school in ways that do not totally compromise or ignore the cultural heritage and ethnic identity of black children. Such strategies should teach academic and social skills and reinforce cultural heritage simultaneously. For some teachers and principals, this will require major changes in attitude toward black people and their culture. Educators cannot begin to think seriously about how to teach academic skills to black students within the context of a black cultural environment until they eliminate their negative biases toward black culture and the black community. They will need to increase their knowledge of the substance and dynamics of black culture and explore ways to combine the cultural orientation of black children with the cultural norms and instructional strategies of the school. In other words, school leaders must stop operating on the assumption that all the reasons for black children's problems with school rest with the children and accept the fact that much of the responsibility rests with the school system.

Because mastery of basic skills is a primary goal of the schools, educators need to consider how to make the teaching of these skills more effective and meaningful to the daily lives of black children. It bears repeating that *the skills themselves and the expectations of high achievement are nonnegotiable*; rather, the means of teaching them should be negotiated and modified. For example, if the interest and appeal of the materials used to teach reading has a positive effect on learning and if black youngsters find the contents of basal readers uninteresting and meaningless, then it is senseless for schools in black communities to waste scarce economic resources to purchase these books. It would be more productive to replace them with collections of materials that are highly interesting to black students and from which reading skills can also be taught.

Teachers and principals must be very clear about their vested interests, missions, and objectives if they are to make such changes without feeling that school standards are being lowered. If their commitment is to improving the reading skills of black students, whatever materials and strategies can do the best job should be used. If their commitment is to the materials they use and if they allow those materials to dictate what and how they teach, then neither the materials nor the strategies for teaching are open to negotiation. Compiling instructional materials that are relevant to poor, urban black students makes better pedagogical sense than spending time and money on canned commercial programs merely to ape the latest instructional vogue. This kind of strategy is consistent with the pedagogical principle of individualizing instruction and with the notion that any school can succeed.

Efforts to make instructional materials and procedures meaningful to poor black children's personal experiences are also consistent with the person-oriented values of black culture and with the field-dependence of black children's learning style. Black students perform better when immersed in a *system* of interrelated learning encounters; the more that content, context, procedures, and climate reinforce one another, the more thorough and enduring their learning will be. Approaches that minimize conflicts between the values and expectations of the school and those of black students maximize academic engaged time and thereby improve the overall academic performance of black students.

Another way in which educators can create environments that are more conducive to learning for black students is to teach them test-taking skills. Although "testing" is not an unfamiliar process in the black culture, the style and procedures of testing in the schools are quite different. The test-taking skills most useful in the black community are verbal artistry, dramatic flair, and dexterity. Information sharing is important, but the aim is not merely to show what one knows. The quickness, creativity, and style of delivery are also important.

Although urban black youngsters are quite adept at passing tests in their own communities, the skills they use there do not transfer very well to school. When they face the prospect of taking tests in school, some black students become so traumatized that they cannot function at all. The procedures, the climate, and the style of test taking in school are all foreign to black students. Black students need to shift from a verbally, aesthetically, and behaviorally active mode of demonstrating achievement to a written, utilitarian, and essentially sedentary performance style. They must shift from cooperative and communal to individual and competitive efforts; from informal to formal settings; from self-paced, flexible work arrangements to highly structured, rigidly timed work sessions.

Teachers and principals can improve black students' test performance by creating test-taking environments that lessen the need to shift styles of performing. This can be done 1) by having students and testers become familiar with each other before the tests, 2) by using practice drills to familiarize students with the routines of testing, 3) by teaching study skills for use in test taking, 4) by desensitizing students to the stress of test taking through relaxation and concentration skills, and 5) by teaching students to manage their time during testing. Furthermore, other techniques of assessment should supplement – and in some cases replace – standardized testing. These might include audiovisual evaluation, peer evaluation, personal interviews, dramatized performance of skill mastery, and orally administered tests.

High-achieving black schools are possible, and some already exist. In them, some arrangements other than the ordinary organizational, structural, and operational routines must be in operation. These could include creating high expectations for performance and accountability and combining them with responsiveness to black cultural values in devising instructional procedures. No matter how the success of black children in school is achieved, it means creating a school climate characterized by a commitment to success and convincing the students that they can and will learn.

Everyone involved in the educational enterprise must share in this commitment to and accountability for success. Parents, who themselves may not have been very successful in school, must understand the importance of participating in the decisions that affect the education of their children. Teachers must be held accountable for developing attitudes and instructional behaviors that are consistent with the school's commitment to success for all students. Students must hold themselves accountable for commitment to learning. Principals must become master teachers – instructional leaders who chart directions, model expectations, and demand that students and teachers alike comply with high standards of performance. Together, these commitments and expectations can change the schooling experience of urban black children and improve their academic success.

Everyone involved in the educational enterprise must share in this commitment to and accountability for success.

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Echar Pa'lante, Moving Onward: The Dilemmas and Strategies of a Bilingual Teacher

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Relatively little is known about the dilemmas that bilingual teachers face in negotiating between the dominant culture's requirements and minority students' predicaments and aspirations. This article is the outcome of a year and a half of participant-observation research on a Hispanic (Puerto Rican) bilingual teacher's strategies and handling of these dilemmas. This teacher's thinking about her role and practice and the beliefs and values that shape and interpret her pedagogy are discussed. BILINGUAL-MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION, CULTURAL PLURALISM, EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

Bilingual teachers face a variety of challenges. What is seldom recognized, at least in published literature on the subject, is that the task that confronts the bilingual teacher goes beyond the basic, explicit aim of providing instruction in the native language for specific subject areas as a means to gain proficiency in the second language—English. Indeed, at the very minimum, the bilingual teacher is a negotiator between cultures. This aspect of the teacher's task becomes especially complex and pronounced when the disparity between the cultural assumptions of a school system on the one hand, and the students' background on the other, is heightened by differences in class, heterogeneity within the minority population, and such factors that may have induced the minority group's immigration into the host country. These facts compel the bilingual teacher to take on, willingly or otherwise, consciously or unawares, the role of an arbitrator between the cultures in question. Such a teacher; aware of the dominant culture's requirements and sensitive, at the same time, to the immigrants' predicaments and aspirations, comes to play a crucial role in guiding the selection of elements in the dominant culture that are functional and essential, while helping the students to retain a necessary measure of self-respect through the preservation of their identity. A study of the bilingual teacher's handling of these issues is thus a long-neglected, yet an essential need today.

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The Research

The present article is the outcome of research carried out by the author on a specific bilingual teacher's strategies and her thinking about these strategies in a Latin American history class. The research, lasting for a year and a half (September 1984–February 1985), was divided into classroom observations, interviews with students, and a series of interviews with the teacher conducted in school and at her home. The school, situated in a city in the northeastern United States, included a class (the focus of this research) in Latin American history for incoming Hispanic students. The class was for students in grades 9 and 11, and was coeducational. The medium of instruction was Spanish, and while the principal textbook was in Spanish, other resource books in Spanish and English were also included.

The teacher (whom we shall call Mrs. S.) is a Puerto Rican woman from a middle-class background in her late thirties. At the time of the study, she had been in the U.S. public school system for six years. Having initially decided to move to the United States in search of career advancement, but finding herself unable to pursue graduate studies owing to a variety of difficulties, she devoted herself to working full-time as a bilingual teacher. Although she had had previous experience as a teacher in Puerto Rico for eight years, it is important to note that this experience had been in private schools. Thus, while Hispanic culture was indigenous to her, she was prepared neither for urban schools (to which this was her first exposure), nor for the particular socioeconomic situation of her students, to be described below. These students, however, were not all from Puerto Rico. A number of later arrivals were from Central American countries. Indeed, in this respect, Mrs. S. was herself caught up in the process of cultural renegotiation, the process that it was her mission to facilitate for her students. This situation clearly helped to develop Mrs. S.'s empathy for her students, and the fact that she was able so soon to attain a perspective on her struggle to evolve a teaching style for her students is a tribute to her unique gifts and sensitivity as a teacher.

The Class

The most striking fact about the class that she taught was its fluctuating membership. The number of students in class varied greatly over a short period: from one in September 1984, to 16 in November, declining to 13 in February 1985, 9–11 by March and April and 12 by June of 1985. Only five students earned the five-credit completion. The composition varied as well. There were more male than female students. In the fall of 1984, the ratio of Puerto Ricans to Central Americans (from El Salvador, Honduras, and Guatemala) was 9:6, while in the spring of 1985 it was 5:7. There was, again, a marked variance in ages, ranging from 14 to 18. Two of the girls, age 14 and 15, were married. One had a child, the other was in the midst of a divorce. There

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was also an unevenness of exposure to the school district: it ranged from 20 days to six years. Most, however, were relative newcomers.

It can thus be seen that Mrs. S.'s teaching had to take place in a context of what might seem hopeless instability. There were, however, certain constant features of the situation, marked by socioeconomic difficulties, uncertainty of direction, and above all, the juxtaposition of differing cultures. These were all mirrored in the classroom, and Mrs. S. had to serve, in some respects, as a mirror in which students could recognize their problems, and with her help, move beyond them.

Immigrants and the Role of Education

The efficacy of education depends to a great extent on the image of education that students carry into the classroom. For an immigrant, the promise of the "American Dream," the hope of improving one's economic prospects in this "land of opportunity," undoubtedly play a role in the decision to emigrate to the United States. But more complex forces may also be involved. For the immigrant from Central American countries in particular, the devastation of war, the prevalence of urban misery and squalor, or the fear of being compelled to join the army or political parties provides a far more immediate and forceful impetus for emigration. Students from such backgrounds will not have the automatic clarity and confidence about the role of education that might be expected of others from more stable and continuous backgrounds. In particular, an interest in learning for its own sake—in knowledge as its own reward—can scarcely be expected from students whose lives seem to be hopelessly enmeshed in an atmosphere of trauma and turmoil.

For such students, survival is a primary concern. Yet their struggle is clouded over by uncertainty of any single or reliable direction for the future. The older Central American migrants, who arrived in the '60s and '70s, have by now merged into the general fabric of Hispanic culture, having become established in small businesses, factory work, or clerical jobs. In retrospect, one can see "mainstream" American education, for them, to have served as a means of functional adaptation to their successful performance within their particular niche in the American economy. But for the new immigrants, whose legal status is often uncertain, the school, as an embodiment of mainstream culture, lacks a clearly defined role in their lives. Thus, their experience in the United States may well represent a continuation of their ordeal. Moreover, their difficulties are aggravated by a dislocation of their accustomed familial settings.

For a large number of cases, for immigrants in this category, the youngsters, usually in their teens, have been sent away on their own, their parents being unable to leave themselves. Some have been lucky to have older relatives already living in the United States. Others are less fortunate. Thus, many households are "sibling-headed," for lack of parents or elders. The resulting loss of parental support, and the fact that the newcomers tend not to speak any English at all, and hence have no means for initiating communication with the new environment, produce a sense of isolation and bewilderment. It is small wonder, then, that they show a high incidence of absenteeism, lack of academic progress, and responses to frustration, which include pregnancy among some of the girls, and dropping out for some of the boys.

The Role of the Teacher

In these circumstances the teacher's role becomes, of necessity, considerably enlarged beyond that of mainstream educators. She is obliged to act as a surrogate parent; she has to make a conscientious effort to see how the students' life-situation is reflected and acted out in the classroom. She has to buttress, in the midst of lowered morale, the students' sense of their worth—a factor that generally calls for reinforcement of continuity with their past. At the same time, she has to introduce them to at least the minimum norms of behavior that would enable them to function and earn a livelihood in the American environment, thus breaking free of the vicious cycle of exclusion, poverty, and demoralization. In this way the bilingual teacher is called upon to question and modify traditional academic criteria of success at school.

Mrs. S. evolved strategies for dealing with the expanded and modified requirements of her role. As she said in response to a questionnaire, she came to see herself vis-à-vis her pupils as a "teacher, friend, mother, social worker, translator, counselor, advocate, prosecutor, group therapist, hygienist, and monitor." Indeed, the experience of working with these students forced her to *reflect* upon the very meaning of being a bilingual teacher. As she said,

> It was like a trip through my own culture, and understanding what my own position was. It helped me define myself within American society. I feel more empowered as a consequence of that.

Strategies in the Classroom

Clearly, the students in Mrs. S.'s class stood in need of reassurance and support from their teacher to a greater degree than others. This was provided by Mrs. S. through expressions of *cariño*, a form of personalized endearment. Thus she rewarded diligence and good behavior not only through verbal intimacy, addressing individual pupils as "my son," "my daughter," and the like, but also through demonstrative gestures such as hugging, touching, and kissing. She used these means as rewards, complementing other practical rewards, such as the chance to go on a field trip following the completion, during the previous week, of an exam; or the right to be on the playground after a day's good behavior. Her sense for the need for personal bonds, on her part, with her students was what made her reluctant to resort to formal sanctions. Only two or three boys were sent to the headmaster's office throughout the year, and this was only for excessive reasons: being belligerent, provoking others, and name-calling. For instance, during one of the lessons, Mrs. S. used a Puerto Rican term in jest to a student, "Don't be a *chota* (tattletale)." This was negatively interpreted by one of the Central American male students, who, muttering under his breath, said, "Dirty Puerto Ricans." That was enough to have him removed from Mrs. S.'s class; the boundary between respect for others, especially Mrs. S., had been ruptured. The less extreme threats from Mrs. S. consisted of oral reprimands that were backed up by a list of names to be detained in *The After School Club*. For the rest, she used the prospect of an exciting trip or simply her own affection as an inducement to good behavior, thus gradually cultivating an appreciation of diligence and delayed gratification.

At the same time, Mrs. S. strove to inculcate in her students the norms of mainstream schooling and society, thus facilitating a necessary degree of adaptation. From their home cultures, the students brought an informality and spontaneity of behavior, a fondness for physical touch and intimacy, and a style of using gestures as a form of communication. For instance, as the students walked into the class, they would, without being asked to do so, take to watering the plants, organizing the teacher's desk, jesting spontaneously with each other as they did so. The girls would show their fascination with Mrs. S. by surrounding her, sniffing at her perfume, and fingering her earrings. Mrs. S. struck a balance between the positive and negative aspects of this spontaneity by registering a demarcation of space. She permitted the informality in the hallway, but, by shutting the classroom door and positioning herself firmly in front of the class, emphasized the more formal ethic of a classroom as soon as the lesson began.

Mrs. S. also gave explicit advice about behavior patterns that were likely to prove maladaptive or to engender misunderstanding in the North American milieu. She explained how touching a teacher's person or dress, or handling her pencils or desk, were not considered legitimate expressions of friendliness but rather, in American terms, a violation of personal space. She urged them to learn simple things, like waiting for attention: "In Puerto Rico, you will never get what you want in a store unless you interrupt. Here it is different." Above all she encouraged them to use verbal expressions instead of relying on gestures, smiles, or silence, as statements of meaning and emotion. Similarly, Mrs. S. advised her students not to lower their eyes when confronted by teachers or administrators, as was the custom in Puerto Rico and Latin America for showing respect. She told them that looking straight at an adult disavowed any wrongdoing and indicated that the student had nothing to hide.

Nourishment of Self and Identity

There was a counterpoint to this process of acculturation. One of Mrs. S.'s important aims was to raise the students' morale and to strengthen their sense of worth and identity, in the context of their own culture. Here Mrs. S.'s own view, in which she saw the Hispanic (and other ethnic minorities) as at once victims and potentially powerful, within the broader American context, shaped her teaching.

One of her purposes was to foster respect and understanding among the students for their colleagues from countries other than their own. This was a difficult task, in that the students tended to align themselves into a hierarchy of status and stigmatization, with the Salvadorans, for example, looking down on the Puerto Ricans. Mrs. S. tried to counter this prejudice directly by discouraging stereotypical labels and by appealing to traditional conceptions of respect and cooperation. For instance, students' use of the Puerto Rican term *jíbaro* (peasant) in derogatory ways, or *wetback* (illegal worker)—generally used by Salvadorans or other Hispanics—would receive a lecture from Mrs. S. on how these words came into being and what their use reflected of one's lack of knowledge. Likewise, laughing at each other's use of certain indigenous words such as *concho* ("heck" in Puerto Rico, but, ending in *a*, refers to the female genitalia in Argentina) or *cortejo* (generally refers to courtship throughout Latin America, but in Puerto Rico it refers to a lover), drew lengthy explanations from Mrs. S. on the relative value of difference among Hispanics.

Another of Mrs. S.'s strategies, designed to enhance her students' self-awareness, was to try to bring the subject matter of her class home to her students by relating it to their experiences in the here and now. Time and again she invited the students to think of parallels in their own experience to themes in Latin American history that they might have learned solely from a text or a film. Such analysis was not always forthcoming to Mrs. S.'s satisfaction. On one occasion, following a discussion of slavery in Africa, two of the Puerto Rican students denied that there was any analogy between Africa and Puerto Rico. Mrs. S. interpreted this denial as a defensive hiatus between what the students read and what they had experienced in their lives. On other occasions, the reticence or denial was temporarily broken by an evocative lesson or film.

Such was the result, for instance, of the showing of the film *El Norte* in the classroom one day. One of the young girls in the class, who had come from Guatemala, broke down after viewing the film, and revealed that she had come to the United States through the sewers, as depicted in the movie. This was thus a cathartic experience for her. Others reminisced about the bribery (*mordida*) among policemen and officials in Mexico and El Salvador. Mrs. S. saw such incipient awareness as the only kind of education that, in her view, made sense to the students at this stage of their lives—that is, one that promoted articulate reflection on their life-situation, both in the present and in the recent past. Awareness was the only means, in her view, to cope with the peculiar form of alienation from which her students suffered—a form she tried to indicate through the use of the Spanish word *enajenación*.

Alienation and the Immigrant Experience

In Mrs. S.'s usage, *enajenación* was a complex term, combining various meanings, namely: (1) illusions about what the United States has to offer; (2) the slow erosion of those illusions, and the encounter with a much harsher reality; (3) the double bind caused by pressure from the dominant society to integrate, along with obstacles from the same society hindering that same integration; (4) the resulting bewilderment; (5) the sense of isolation caused by lack of outlets for communicating or reflecting upon one's predicament; and (6) the use of specific defense mechanisms, such as denial. Thus, *enajenación*, according to Mrs. S.'s formulation, is a malaise that runs its course through a number of phases.

The first stage—what Mrs. S. characterized as the "honeymoon stage"—is constituted by a naive, unquestioning belief in the "American Dream." As one of the students said when explaining his motive for emigration, "My brother told me that one becomes somebody here in the U.S.A., and he convinced me to come here." However, the difficulty of finding a job in an urban setting, the lack of specific skills, an inadequate grasp of English, or—even when the English may be sufficient—anomalies in self-presentation due to the differences in cultures, are some of the factors that militate against the immigrants' attaining the kind of jobs they would have wished. Disillusionment then follows. The resulting sense of helplessness and bewilderment saps self-esteem and the will to self-betterment. It was to this process that Mrs. S. attributed the tendency among some of her students to perform poorly and drop out of school. She also felt that the reactions to the resulting "void"—either through denial or through capitulation to an excessive appetite for material goods (e.g., expensive leather jackets and shoes)—only made the problem worse by preempting the development of a struggle, and hence, of character.

By taking the approach that she did in her teaching, Mrs. S. aimed at guiding her students in the midst of an inevitable sense of *enajenación* to develop their found self-identity. Nevertheless, she felt that her task was made nearly impossible by the school system's distorted perception, and underappreciation, of the bilingual teacher.

The Bilingual Teacher, School, and Community

In Mrs. S.'s experience, bilingual teachers are apt to be tolerated rather than appreciated. The fact that the special classes to which bilingual teachers are assigned are transitional—akin to a waiting room, where students are to stay until they are admitted to the mainstream—induces a sense of marginality in the teacher. Thus the bilingual teacher comes to feel the very sense of isolation—an aspect of *enajenación*—that is also the fate of the migrant student. As Mrs. S. remarked, "Very seldom are teachers recognized for what they contribute to society, and being a bilingual teacher is like being a second-class member of an already devalued profession."

Furthermore, regular teachers and school administrators have a tendency to see a given minority as monolithic, even when the internal diversity is real and significant. In Mrs. S.'s school, students from Latin American countries were at times erroneously dubbed "Puerto Ricans," thus arousing among them a sense of nonrecognition and resentment. The expectation that all of these students could be "mainstreamed" by being taught English belies the real diversity of their backgrounds and current experience. It thwarts the recognition that the only realistic hope that can be held on behalf of these students is that they might one day take their place in a society that is a mosaic rather than a melting pot. Moreover, the wider community's apprehensions about bilingual education, when it sees it as a threat to the English language or as an instrument for minority political power, worsens the bilingual teacher's feeling of being misunderstood and unappreciated—in short, of being a pariah.

Given these constraints, Mrs. S. thought that the only way for a bilingual teacher to exercise a positive influence, at least as far as the students are concerned, is to turn their classes into a problem-solving forum where the realities that press upon the students' lives are directly discussed. Mrs. S. achieved this by becoming as conversant with her students' lives outside school as she could. She went to their *quinceañeras* ("coming-out" parties), visited their families, talked to relatives, listened to the local grapevine. Within her class, the task to which she devoted major attention was creating new bonds that transcended and dispelled myths and stereotypes about each other. Thereby, she hoped to contribute to their growth as social beings.

In the wider context, the enterprise of bilingual education is bound to remain thwarted unless the school authorities and the community as a whole make a better effort to understand the realities of minority experience, its diversity, and the challenges facing the teachers. The importance of this task may be well appreciated when we consider that Hispanics, for instance, who are the second largest minority after blacks, are the youngest and fastest-growing population in the nation. Almost a third are under the age of 15, and two-thirds are under the age of 34 (*Hispanic Policy Development Project* I:19). Even more telling is the fact that

> because of their geographic concentration, Hispanics, over the next two decades, will become the majority of the school population and the majority

of the workforce in many areas of the nation. [*Hispanic Policy Development Project* I:23]

Concluding Comments

The above discussion has been offered as a contribution toward a more comprehensive perspective on bilingual education than is currently to be found. In such a perspective, the interpersonal, the instructional, and the institutional levels are all of equal and simultaneous importance. At the interpersonal level, there is a pattern of interaction between the teacher on the one hand, and the students, other teachers, and school administrators on the other hand. The instructional component involves selection and organization itself based on assumptions and images to do with a philosophy of education. The institutional level comprises the organization of the school and its norms, as embodied in explicit rules on one hand and the more generalized attitudes of the staff and administration on the other. These levels constitute the total experience of education, of the organization, processing, and transmission of knowledge, for the students, teachers, as well as the administrators and the wider community involved in the process.

We have seen how for a bilingual teacher such as Mrs. S., in the kind of setting in which she worked, a variety of forces combined to make her situation and that of her class marginal and problematic. The net result was that at each of the pertinent levels—the interpersonal, the instructional, and the institutional—conventional assumptions about the modes and goals of teaching had to be questioned and disregarded. This is a jolting and awakening experience, insofar as it forces the teacher to reexamine her perspectives afresh. In the absence of understanding and support from the school and the community beyond, a teacher such as Mrs. S. is forced into the position of devising her own perspectives. The term *perspective* is used here in the sense defined by Becker, as "positive or negative codified sets of ideas and . . . practices, sometimes very explicit, sometimes almost totally implicit" (Becker et al. 1968:37). Mrs. S. had no "codified" perspectives appropriate to the kind of students she found herself having to care for. She had no socially approved and formulated scheme of values she could transfer and apply to her classroom and that she could use as a measuring rod to test and evaluate the success of her pedagogic endeavors.

This experience, of being cast into a flux, an unordered island within a larger, conventional, but irrelevant order, is what constitutes for Mrs. S. the experience of *enajenación*. Her role as a "bilingual teacher" came to be unanchored to the traditional meanings attached to the role. There was a gulf between the official meaning, expectations, and attitudes attached to the notion of a bilingual teacher, and the realities faced by Mrs. S. in the classroom and in the lives of the students. But, as human beings have a natural predilection to impose a mastery over chaos, Mrs. S. devised a series of *ad hoc* strategies or procedures, as we have seen above. These strategies carry her implicit, developing perspective on educational processes as they pertain to minority students. An investigation of such perspectives, evolving out of the comparable experiences of teachers in this country, is a dire necessity in the field of educational thought. Such an investigation would, in its turn, lead ideally to a kind of understanding of bilingual education that is more sophisticated, more attentive to the nuances and the diversities of minority communities—above all, more informed by the *realities* of their experience—than is the case at present.

Notes

Acknowledgments. I would like to express my debt to Ms. Perez, who did not only share information, but collaborated in discussions and presentations at the Harvard Graduate School of Education and actively shaped the formation of my thinking. The research for this article was conducted in a school district in which Ms. Perez taught prior to her present position in the Lexington Public Schools.

1. In order to maintain confidentiality, the school district in this research is not identified. However, I would like to acknowledge the participation of the students from the Latin American History class.

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Teachers and Cultural Styles In a Pluralistic Society

BY ASA G. HILLIARD III

Is matching teaching styles to students' cultural learning styles the answer to low achievement among "minority" students, or an excuse not to teach all students in effective ways—or both?

Educational dialog in recent years has given substantial attention to the question of the importance and precise meaning of "style" in teaching and learning, particularly for "minority" groups. Style differences between teachers and students and between students and the curriculum have been cited as explanations for the low academic performance of some "minority" groups. Just as "one person's meat is another person's poison," however, one person's explanation is another person's excuse.

Predictably, a debate has ensued over the part, if any, that style plays. There has, however, been little opportunity for a rigorous and systematic scrutiny of applied pedagogy that incorporates insights from the style theorists. As a result, much of the discussion about style has taken on more of the character of rhetoric than of scientific pedagogy.

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In education, we frequently do not enjoy common professional terminology. We use the same words some of the time, but we do not have common meanings for those words. This problem is particularly acute where the topic is style. We clearly need to find

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a new way to talk about a somewhat complex set of realities. Before we proceed, certain relevant questions must be answered: Does style exist? What is style? Is style the property of groups, of individuals, or of both? Can any group be identified by a particular style? Is the style of a group pedagogically meaningful?

Educators sometimes appear to be caught on the horns of a dilemma. They are called upon to be sensitive to the styles that the students in their classes present—and warned not to stereotype groups of people. All individuals deserve, we are told, to be able to reveal themselves as they really are. We are not to prejudge students. Are these directives in conflict with each other?

Culture, Race, and Class

Definitions of culture differ widely, even among professionals such as anthropologists. I will offer a simple working definition that contains the essence of others. This definition does not attempt to enumerate all the parameters of culture or offer a theory of its dynamics, yet it should be useful here.

Paulo Freire, the gifted Brazilian educator, has defined "culture" as "anything that human beings make." In essence, Freire sought to make primary the distinction between what is "nature" and what is "culture," between what is made by humans and what is not. This definition should leave the user with a certain sense of the arbitrariness and the equivalence of the many things that many different peoples make. For example, the Chinese, English, and African peoples all make music, but each does it differently. Similarly, each people has a distinctive way of making languages, philosophy, music, symbols, stories, poetry. It is an error to think of one group's cultural creativity as superior to that of another. The two merely differ.

People choose to make things out of the elements available to them in their environment, in keeping with their motivation to do so and their historical frame of reference. Any cultural characterization of a person or group is, then, a statement about the results of human choice, not about natural properties, such as mental capacities.

Above all, an understanding of culture should bring a sense of the profound difficulty of coming up with cultural universals. Some educators and behavioral scientists have committed what social psychologist Wade Nobels has called the scientific "error of transubstantiation." That is the error of attempting to interpret the cultural substance of one group in terms of the cultural substance of another. In psychology, for example, measurement with culture-bound instruments may be thought to provide information about intellect, cognition, personality, or self-concept. It might in fact, however, simply assess cultural assimilation or similarity.

I remain unconvinced that the explanation of the low performance of "minority" group students will be found in behavioral style.

A human group shares ways of doing things: Simply put, groups share cultural patterns. Culture is what gives ethnicity its strength and meaning. Culture provides group members with a deep sense of belonging and often with a strong preference for behaving in certain ways.

Other means of designating groups may not generate this type of identity and feeling at all. For example, belonging to the group of Americans who are 18 years of age, who owe library fines, who are five feet eleven inches tall, and who moved to Washington State last year may not be accompanied by any real group feelings at all.

The cultural dimension, then, is very important to our discussion of style. Discussions of cultural matters in education, unfortunately, suffer from a widespread tendency to confuse race and class with culture. These may be associated, but they are not synonymous. A person of the Black race, for example, may or may not be closely identified with the mainstream of traditional culture in the Black community. In any given society, members of a race that tends to share a common culture may, because of racism or other forms of oppression, tend to occupy the bottom rung of the economic and political ladder. But the culture of the group is not defined by its class: there are many cultural groups within every class level, just as members of one cultural group may represent different classes.

Knowing race and class, then, the professional is obligated to look further if a student is to be understood. In a classic 1977 book about culture and style, Edward T. Hall emphasized a very important characteristic of culture. It is, he says, "invisible." Most of us are profoundly unaware of our cultural patterns. We experience them as normal or natural ways of acting, feeling, and being. According to Hall, we are most able to know ourselves culturally when we immerse ourselves in exotic cultures—cultures so different from our own that we are forced to understand that there is more than one way to be "natural."

Such insights help us begin to appreciate the subtler differences among racial and ethnic groups in the United States, which tend to overlap each other culturally to such an extent that the cultural commonalities tend to drown out the equally potent cultural uniquenesses. Any meaningful discussion of style thus requires a highly sophisticated sense of cultural dynamics.

Style

Human beings have an infinite variety of options in organizing and using the environment. Over time, individuals and groups tend to develop habitual ways of responding to experience. In individuals we call the sum of these patterns "personality." Perhaps the best way to think about culture—or that aspect of culture we call "style"—is to consider it the "personality" of a group.

Scientists from many academic disciplines have reported amazingly similar findings based upon their observa-

tions of different aspects of group styles. They still, however, use different terminology. Brain researchers talk about "left brain" and "right brain" behavioral patterns. Psychologists such as Rosalie Cohen talk about "analytic" and "relational" cognitive styles. Anthropologists such as Warren Tenhouten have spoken about "science" and its "mirror image." Psychiatrists such as David Shapiro have noted "obsessive compulsive" versus "hysterical" behavioral styles. Strikingly, the specific descriptors of the behaviors that fall under the various labels for style are quite similar—sometimes identical—to one another.

As a simple definition of style, I propose "consistency in the behavior of a person or of a group that tends to be habitual"—the manifestation of a predisposition to approach things in a characteristic way.

Although a few investigators seem to be interested in seeking a biological basis for style, I have found it more useful to focus on the cultural basis. Style is learned. Our understanding from learning theory therefore applies here—for example, learned patterns can be either changed or augmented.

Educators have had a difficult time accepting the existence of varieties of culture and style. Many Americans have had a kind of ideological commitment to the notion of the nation as a "melting pot," as both an ideal and a reality. Some have a very hard time managing simultaneously the ideas of democracy on the one hand and cultural pluralism on the other. Yet there is no conflict between these two concepts. In fact, one test of a democracy may well be the degree to which it provides an environment within which religious pluralism, political pluralism, and yes, cultural pluralism can exist. In any event, ample empirical data attest to the reality of cultural pluralism.

Cultural style, then, cannot be ignored. But precisely what are we to make of it?

Several important things may be said about style. First we must remember that style should be considered on its various levels—cognitive, learning, and behavioral. The following general points may be made.

- Styles are learned, not innate.
- Like other learned behaviors, styles can be changed.
- A person can learn to use more than one style, and to switch when appropriate. When this talent is applied to languages, linguists call it "code switching."
- Style tends to be rooted at a deep structural level and so may be manifest in a highly generalized way. For example, you can predict that cognitive, learning, and general behavioral style will follow the same rules.

We may say, then, that behavioral style is an aspect of culture—"group personality"—and say certain things about the nature of style. What does this mean for teaching and learning?

A Question of Style—Or of Expectations?

It is one thing to show that "invisible culture" is real. It is quite another thing to show that culture is meaningful in pedagogical terms.

It is widely assumed that the mere presence of style requires a pedagogical response, especially at the point of applying specific teaching strategies. It is also widely believed that there already exist well-articulated, appropriate teaching strategies that are differentiated from each other and that can also be characterized in stylistic terms—that good matches can be made between teaching and cognitive or learning styles. It is widely believed, moreover, that such matches ought to be made and that when they are made, teaching and learning will be more successful.

These ideas, while not necessarily held by a majority of teachers, are nevertheless intuitively satisfying to many. But precisely where in the teaching and learning interaction does style inform pedagogy?

I have been an educator for more than 30 years. During most of that time I have been a teacher educator. I have had the opportunity to observe thousands of teachers. I have had the opportunity to read extensively in the area of teaching strategies. I have been interested in locating teachers and schools where students who normally are expected to have low achievement are actually helped to have superior achievement. Many of the students who have been helped are the same students who, some argue, require a unique pedagogical style to match their cognitive or learning styles.

Since I have been interested in behavioral style and have conducted research on the topic, I have taken every opportunity to focus my observations and to query teachers—both successful and unsuccessful ones—in order to determine, if possible, the role that style considerations play in the work of teachers.

What I have learned is that the behavioral style issue is important and useful in some limited circumstances—I will address them later—but that it is very premature to draw conclusions for classroom strategy based on style, or to prescribe pedagogical practice in a general way.

I do believe that greater sensitivity to style issues will make meaningful contributions to pedagogy in the future. Yet I remain unconvinced that the explanation for the low performance of culturally different "minority" group students will be found by pursuing questions of behavioral style. Since students are adaptable, the stylistic difference explanation does not answer the question of why "minority groups" perform at a low level.

In short, I believe that the children, no matter what their style, are failing primarily because of systematic inequities in the delivery of whatever pedagogical approach the teachers claim to master—not because students cannot learn from teachers whose styles do not match their own.

In fact, there is a protocol of interactive behaviors of teachers who, for whatever reasons, have low expectations for students. Excellent evidence for this conclusion can be found in the research summarized by Jere Brophy and cited by Eva Chun in 1988. The research shows that teachers tend to—

- demand less from low-expectation students ("lows") than from high-expectation students ("highs").
- wait less time for lows to answer questions.
- give lows the answer or call on someone else rather than try to improve the lows' response through repeating the question, providing clues, or asking a new question.
- provide lows with inappropriate reinforcement by rewarding inappropriate behaviors or incorrect answers.
- criticize lows more often than highs for failure.
- praise lows less frequently than highs for success.
- fail to give feedback to lows' public responses.
- pay less attention to lows and interact with them less frequently.
- call on lows less often than highs to respond to questions.
- seat lows farther away from the teacher than highs.
- use more rapid pacing and less extended explanations or repetition of definitions and examples with highs than with lows.
- accept more low-quality or more incorrect responses from low-expectation students.
- attempt to improve more poor responses from highs than from lows.
- interact with lows more privately than publicly.
- in administering or grading tests or assignments, give highs but not lows the benefit of the doubt in borderline cases.
- give briefer and less informative feedback to the questions of lows than to those of highs.
- use less intrusive instruction with highs than with lows, so that they have more opportunity to practice independently.
- when time is limited, use less effective and more time-consuming instructional methods with lows than with highs.

> Children, no matter what their style, fail primarily because of systematic inequities in delivery of any pedagogical approach.

This range of teacher behavior toward low-performing students is only one aspect of an even larger reality. Another aspect has to do with the real world of pedagogy.

I believe most educators operate on the belief that our pedagogy is systematic, that there is a generally accepted professional practice. As mentioned above, we tend to believe that this practice can be differentiated. We imply exactly that when we group children in tracks or assign them to special education categories. But this assumption simply does not fit the empirical facts. The most accurate description we can give of present circumstances is that teachers generally have the freedom to create their own unique, ad hoc approach to the design of instructional strategy. Uniform strategies are generally not required. This fact alone would make it difficult to change in any consistent way the manner in which all teachers react to various styles, assuming that it were desirable to do so.

There may be very good reasons for using what we know about style in the design of teaching. This has less to do with matters of inequity, however, than with making pedagogy better for all. The traditional approaches to pedagogy have tended to be rigid and uncreative. They are far from exhausting the wonderful possibilities for teaching and learning.

The Uses of Style

Where, then, does this leave us? What can now be said about the utility of the style phenomenon for educators? I believe that the meaning of style for us at our present level of understanding can be found in four main areas.

First, the misunderstanding of behavioral style leads educators to make mistakes in estimating a student's or a cultural group's intellectual potential. The consequences of such errors are enormous, producing mislabeling, misplacement, and the ultimate mistreatment—inappropriate teaching—of children. If stylistic differences are interpreted as evidence of capacity rather than as an expression of preference, a long chain of abuses is set in motion.

Some children, for example, develop a habit of focusing on the global characteristics of a problem rather than on its particulars: Others do the reverse. Ideally, a student would be flexible enough to do either. Since schools traditionally give more weight to analytical approaches than to holistic approaches, however, the student who does not manifest analytical habits is at a decided disadvantage.

Second, the misunderstanding of behavioral styles leads educators to misread achievement in academic subjects such as creative expression. Orlando Taylor, a sociolinguist and dean of the School of Communications at Howard University, has shown, for example, that there is often a gross mismatch between the storytelling styles of African American children and those of their teachers.

Many teachers from Eurocentric cultures have a linear storytelling style. Many African American children, on the other hand, exhibit a spiraling storytelling style, with many departures from an initial point, but with a return to make a whole. Many teachers of these children are unable to follow the children's coherent stories. Some teachers even believe that the children's stories have no order at all. Some lose patience with the children and indicate that they're doing badly.

Third, the misunderstanding of behavioral style can lead educators to misjudge students' language abilities. When students and teachers differ in language, teachers sometimes use their own language as a normative reference. They are regarding common English as *language*, instead of *a language*. As a result, any child who speaks a different version of English is seen as having a "language deficiency" rather than a "common English deficiency." This judgment makes a big difference in how the problem is defined. On the one hand, there is a deficiency in the student; on the other, there is an objective for instruction, with no suggestion that the student is somehow impaired.

Finally, the misunderstanding of behavioral style can make it difficult to establish rapport and to communicate. The literature on teachers' expectations of students is generally very clear. The images that teachers and others hold of children and their potential have a major influence on their decisions to use the full range of their professional skills. If a teacher mistakes a child's differing style for lack of intellectual potential, the child will likely become educationally deprived as the teacher "teaches down" to the estimated level. As I have mentioned, this involves simplifying, concretizing, fragmenting, and slowing the pace of instruction.

Using what we know of style in the design of teaching has less to do with inequity than with making pedagogy better for all.

What We Know of Style

There is something we can call style—a central tendency that is a characteristic of both individuals and groups. This style is cultural—learned. It is meaningful in the teaching and learning interaction. Students' style is not, however, to be used as an excuse for poor teaching or as an index of low capacity.

It is too early for us to say how or whether pedagogy (classroom teaching strategy) should be modified in response to learning styles. A proper sensitivity to style can provide a perspective for the enrichment of instruction for all children and for the improvement both of teacher-student communications and of the systematic assessment of students.

Educators need not avoid addressing the question of style for fear they may be guilty of stereotyping students. Empirical observations are not the same as stereotyping. But the observations must be empirical, and must be interpreted properly for each student. We must become more sensitive to style out of a basic respect for our students, for their reality, and for their tremendous potential for learning.

For Further Reading

Alternatives to IQ Testing: An Approach to the Identification of Gifted "Minority" Children. Asa G. Hilliard III. California State Department of Education, 1976. This report illustrates the contrast between African American and European style in music, religion, and language. ERIC Clearinghouse #EC 103067.

Beyond Culture. T.E. Hall. Anchor Books, 1977. Hall gives examples of the contrast between Western European style and Japanese style.

Keeping Track: How Schools Structure Inequality. Jeannie Oakes. Yale University Press, 1985. This study gives the best explanation I've seen for intercultural and interracial differences in academic achievement.

Placing Children in Special Education: A Strategy for Equity. K. Heller, W. Holtzman, and S. Messick. National Academy Press, 1982. The authors expose the shallowness of much assessment and the lack of differentiated pedagogy in schools.

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Testing African American Students. Special issue of the *Negro Education Review*. Asa G. Hilliard III, ed. April-July 1987. This collection explores dimensions of culture in the teaching and assessment process.

Chapter 2:

Developing a Mentoring Program

Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

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Chapter 2:

Developing a Mentoring Program

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Each chapter of *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators* informs the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist facilitators in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with the facilitator as the primary audience.

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Introduction

The development and implementation of an effective mentoring program depends on the actions and support of many individuals and organizations. In this chapter, we address the following questions:

- What are the goals of a mentoring program?
- How do schools and/or districts design a mentoring program?
- How do schools and/or districts implement a mentoring program?
- What are the roles and responsibilities of participants in a mentoring program?

What Are the Goals of a Mentoring Program?

A mentoring program builds on a new teacher's previous preparation and experience while fostering increasing instructional expertise. It is based upon the assumption that new teachers are "well prepared in content and theory" but still have much to learn about putting their knowledge to work (Odell 1989a, 19). A review of the literature suggests the following goals for mentoring programs:

- to integrate new teachers into the social system of the school, the district, and the community;
- to reduce the concerns and attempt to overcome the challenges common to new teachers (for example, discipline, classroom management, interaction with parents, diversity in students, instructional issues);
- to develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that are vital to success throughout a teacher's career;
- to enhance new teachers' personal and professional development, enabling them to attain higher instructional competence;
- to provide instructional and interpersonal support that furthers this development, offers an opportunity for new and experienced teachers to analyze and reflect upon their teaching, and builds a foundation for the continued study of teaching;
- to instill norms of collegiality and experimentation; and
- to retain highly qualified new and experienced teachers.

We would add to this list a goal that a mentoring program enhances teachers' ability to deal effectively with diverse groups of individuals, the different learning styles of children and adults, and the various teaching styles of educators. We would also stress the importance of reflection-for-action, i.e., using the knowledge gained from reflection to adapt behavior to enhance future learning. Together these goals provide the foundation upon which to design a program that enhances the professional development of new and experienced educators.

How Do Schools and/or Districts Design a Mentoring Program?

The impetus for the development of a mentoring program can come from several sources, such as a state or district mandate, a professional association, or a group of teachers. No matter what the force behind it, a series of critical tasks must be undertaken to ensure its success (see **Figure 2.1** on page 2-3).

First is the establishment of school board policies and, in some cases, state policies that support or mandate a mentoring program. Second is the creation of a group that is charged with designing a mentoring program for a school or district (*see Activity 2-1, "Building the Foundation," on page 2-27*). The membership of this planning group may consist of:

- currently employed teachers (mentors and second-year teachers, if possible);
- administrators, both central office and site-based;
- representatives of the district's teachers' associations;
- school board members;
- parents and/or community members;
- faculty from colleges and universities that prepare teachers (if geographically possible); and
- representatives from state education agencies.

It is important to try to include representatives from all of these groups. Without the support of those who affect or are affected by the program, it may fall short of its intended outcomes or even fail. It is also necessary to note that while the development of the program may be a collaborative process, there frequently is a champion among the collaborators -- someone who has a vision for the program, persuades others to adopt or adapt that vision, and enables the group to achieve it.

Among the activities that this multiconstituent planning group might undertake are:

- reviewing current literature on mentoring programs and mentoring relationships;
- identifying the philosophy, mission, and goals for the mentoring program that fit the context of the local district;
- developing a proposed budget for the mentoring program;
- presenting a proposal for the establishment of a mentoring program to the school board;
- defining the roles and responsibilities of participants in the mentoring program;
- determining the criteria and procedures for selecting mentors and assigning them to new teachers;
- assessing the needs of new teachers and mentors in its district;
- determining the design of mentor training to be offered;
- providing for the evaluation of the mentoring program;

Figure 2.1 Proposed Time Line for Designing a Mentoring Program

Year 1

Month 1	School board establishes the mentoring of new teachers as one of the district's priorities
Month 2	Multiconstituent planning group is formed or named
Months 3-6	Group reviews current literature on mentoring and consults with colleagues in districts with mentoring programs, faculty from teacher-preparation institutions, and/or staff at state education agencies
Months 7-10	Group identifies philosophy, mission, goals, and budget for mentoring program and develops proposal for school board
Months 11-12	Group presents proposal to the school board and it is acted upon

Year 2

Months 1-3	Group defines roles and responsibilities of participants in mentoring program and the criteria and procedures for selecting mentors and assigning them to new teachers
Months 4-5	Group conducts and analyzes preliminary assessment of the needs of new teachers and mentors
Months 6-9	Group designs training to be offered to mentors and identifies staff development opportunities to be made available to new teachers
Months 8-9	Group develops preliminary plans for evaluation and assigns to subgroup or appropriate division in district for follow-through
Months 10-12	Group designs plan for piloting the program and determines implementation schedule and procedures

Note: Circumstances in local districts will impact any time line. This is only a proposed time line.

- establishing a plan for piloting the mentoring program over a period of three to five years;[*] and
- implementing a plan that includes schedules and procedures.

Each of these activities is addressed in the following paragraphs. There is some logic to the sequence in which they are presented, but local conditions will dictate the most appropriate order in your school or district. We have identified some of the steps or subtasks in each activity, potential sources for further information, and activities at the end of this chapter that might assist your planning group in accomplishing a particular task. You may also refer to **Appendix 2-E** on page 2-89, which presents a checklist related to the components of a written plan for a mentoring program. This may assist you in determining whether you have covered all of the bases (*see Activity 2-2, "Developing a Mentoring Program," on page 2-31*).

Reviewing the Literature

To benefit from others' experiences, it is helpful to review current literature and research on mentoring and to talk to colleagues in other districts who have implemented programs. You might start by reading some of the selections in the annotated bibliography at the end of this chapter. Given the volume of literature on mentoring programs and the mentoring process, you might find it useful to employ the *Generic Jigsaw Exercise* in **Appendix 2-C** on page 2-83. It enables you to cover a lot of material in a short period of time, provides a valuable means of expanding everyone's knowledge of mentoring, and offers everyone an opportunity to develop the group's vision of mentoring through discussion. As material is reviewed by the planning group, it is important to determine how the main themes of the research or literature relate to your district or school and its proposed mentoring program.

Identifying the Philosophy, Mission, and Goals within a Local Context

Prior to preparing a proposal for the consideration of the school board, the planning group must identify its philosophy (shared values and beliefs about its mentoring program), mission, and goals. The goals should be broad and the objectives stated in observable and measurable terms (*see Activity 2-3, "Onward and Upward: Developing a Mission Statement for a Mentoring Program," on page 2-35*).

The two primary sources for developing goals are the local context (i.e., the school's or district's needs) and the teachers' needs. In developing an effective mentoring program, the planning group needs to design a program that fits the needs of its specific population of teachers, fully utilizes resources (people, practices, and funds) available within the district or community, and accommodates organizational constraints. Several variables can influence the design of a district's or school's mentoring program, such as:

- the number, background, and skills of new teachers;
- the number, interest, and competence of potential mentors;
- the extent to which a school's or district's norms and expectations encourage collegiality and experimentation;

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[*] Research indicates that change takes three to five years to occur. Although this time frame would be optimal for a pilot program, lack of time or resources may not permit a district to undertake a pilot program of that length.

- administrative support;
- current supervision and evaluation procedures;
- quality of functioning professional development programs; and
- available financial resources.

The availability of financial resources influences the extent to which programs can provide lighter teaching loads to new teachers and mentors, time for new teachers to observe other teachers, time for new teachers and mentors to meet, opportunities to participate in specific in-service courses, and training opportunities for mentors (Maryland State Department of Education and Research for Better Schools 1987, 72).

Developing a Proposed Budget

A proposed budget for the program must also be drafted. The most common line items in a budget for a mentoring program are:

- salaries (including stipends);
- funds for substitutes for release time and funds for administration;
- benefits;
- purchased services (for example, consultants); and
- supplies, materials, and equipment.

The size of the budget and allocations to each line will depend on the number of new teachers who enter the school or district each year and the extent of the mentoring program. The most valuable source of information on average costs are colleagues in districts with mentoring programs, faculty in colleges or universities who have studied mentoring programs, directors of mentoring programs in state education agencies, or research staff in professional educators' organizations.

Presenting a Proposal for the Establishment of a Mentoring Program to the School Board

The timing, as well as the number, of presentations to the school board will vary by district. Some districts may wish to obtain initial approval for a mentoring program from the school board prior to establishing a planning group as indicated in **Figure 2.1** on page 2-3. In other districts, it may be more appropriate to approach the school board after the planning group has reviewed current literature and practice, and identified the philosophy, mission, and goals of its proposed program. Finally, in some districts, the school board may prefer to have periodic reports from the planning group and want to review draft plans for piloting and implementing the program before it lends its support to the endeavor. Whatever the sequence, the planning group should determine what its goals and outcomes are for the presentation, how to best ensure the achievement of those goals (the determination of the information to be shared and the most appropriate medium for sharing that information), and who will be responsible for the tasks involved in preparing for, delivering, and following up on the presentation.

Defining the Roles and Responsibilities of Participants in a Mentoring Program

Much emphasis is placed on the relationship between a mentor and a new teacher, but the success of a mentoring program depends on many people. Successful programs identify and communicate the roles and responsibilities of mentors, new teachers, other faculty and staff members, superintendents, principals, faculty from teacher preparation programs, parents, school board members, the community, and staff from state education agencies. For more detailed information on this topic, please refer to the section in this chapter on roles and responsibilities *(see Activity 2-4, "Teachers and Administrators: What Are Their Roles?" on page 2-41).*

Determining Criteria and Procedures for Selecting and Assigning Mentors to New Teachers

Formal processes for the selection, assignment, and reassignment of mentors should be developed by the planning group, or a subcommittee, and shared with everyone in the school or district. This formality will signify that the mentor role and its functions are important, increase the credibility of the process, and foster applicants' commitment to their new role *(see Activity 2-5, "What Makes a Good Mentor?" on page 2-53).*

If a subcommittee is assigned to the task, its membership should be similar to that of the planning group discussed above. Mentoring programs affect and rely most heavily on teachers, thus the presence of a majority of teachers on initial planning committees is vital.

Conducting a Needs Assessment

Data on the needs of new teachers, both new to the profession and new to the district, and mentors can be gathered in several ways. Much research exists on this topic, so a review of the literature will yield substantial information. Resources for this information exist in every district, if not in every school. Interviews or focus groups could be conducted with first- or second-year teachers, teachers new to the district or school, and mentors in other school districts. In addition, the principal and other staff could be queried concerning typical issues new teachers have discussed with them. For more information, refer to the section on needs of new teachers and training and support for mentors *(see Activity 2-6, "Teachers' Needs," on page 2-55).*

Designing Mentor Training

"Careful selection [of mentors] is a prerequisite of success, but the highest program priority is the systematic preparation of support teachers" (Odell 1989a, 29). Without adequate support for mentor teachers, a mentoring program can falter and, at worst, die. The planning group or a subcommittee it establishes (as discussed above) should review the literature on mentor training, talk to colleagues who have developed or participated in mentor training, assist in planning the needs assessment for new and experienced mentors in its school or district, utilize data from that needs assessment to determine the appropriate components for mentor training in its school or district, and identify resources that can be utilized for training mentors.

Research has shown that continual professional development rather than one-shot presentations is more effective. Most mentor training programs provide intensive, initial training for mentors prior to the beginning of school and support with ongoing sessions, based on mentors' needs, throughout the school year. For more detailed information and activities on mentor training, please refer to Chapter 3.

Evaluating a Mentoring Program

Provisions for evaluation of the mentoring program should be established early in the design by the planning group or a subcommittee or evaluation team that it appoints. Decisions need to be made about the focus of the evaluation, how it will be conducted, when, and by whom. Gathering baseline data also needs to be considered, as evaluators must assess the difference before and after the program's implementation.

The evaluation might address any of the following:

- the effectiveness of the program in meeting its goals from a job, organizational, and individual viewpoint;
- pre- and post-measures of the participants' concerns;
- the effectiveness of the process and procedures employed;
- the change in new teachers' needs throughout the year;
- the ability of mentor training to effectively address the skills and content mentors need to offer appropriate assistance to new teachers;
- benefits and problems identified by mentors and new teachers;
- new teachers' perceptions of their mentor's impact on them;
- mentors' views of their new teachers' impact on them;
- new teachers' impact on their own classes, staff members, and parents;
- the program's impact on the entire school;
- needs that are being addressed;
- skills that are improving; or
- changes in new teachers' ability to process their classroom experience and modify their behavior.

The planning group or evaluation team should obtain, in a structured manner, feedback on these concerns from any individual who has been involved in the program. These data should be analyzed and shared with program planners and participants who will use them to revise the program prior to the next year of implementation.

During the first five years of implementation, it may be difficult for the staff of a new program to conduct a comprehensive evaluation. An acceptable alternative is to choose to assess the effectiveness of a different component each year, revise that component, and evaluate the entire program in the fifth year of its existence. In any case, it is crucial to establish baseline data as a point of comparison.

For example, a first-year evaluation might assess:

- the effectiveness of your selection procedures;
- the usefulness of release time;
- the impact of the program on new teachers; or
- the benefits for or concerns of mentors.

During the second year, you may decide to study the impact on indirect participants, such as administrators, students, or other teachers. By the fifth year of implementation, you may be ready to assess the relationship of the mentoring program to student outcomes. For further information on the evaluation of a mentoring program, see Chapter 4.

Establishing a Plan for Piloting a Mentoring Program

If you are planning to adopt a mentoring program within your district, the planning group should develop a plan for piloting the proposed mentoring program in one or two schools over a period of three to five years prior to districtwide implementation. The information gained will enable you to modify the plan on a small scale prior to broad implementation.

If a pilot program is instituted, the district should:

- issue guidelines and a schedule for program participation and activities;
- offer special funding to participating schools;
- establish a formal support and evaluation system for program activities; and
- provide mentor training and technical assistance to participating schools.

The schools, in turn, should:

- establish a multiconstituent group to plan a program that conforms to the district's basic guidelines and meets the needs of its new teachers;
- select participants;
- implement activities developed by the planning group;
- facilitate release time for mentors and new teachers to observe, conference, and meet; and
- participate in the district's support and mentoring program evaluation system.

Basic program activities of the pilot program might include:

- two to five days of training for mentors and administrators before school starts and additional time during the year;
- one day of program orientation for administrators, mentors, and new teachers before the start of school;
- the pairing of one mentor or a team with a new teacher (with assistance from other colleagues);
- peer observations and conferences by pairs or teams at least once a week during the first month, twice a month during the second and third months, and once each month during the remainder of the year; and
- informal meetings between pairs or teams when needed (Newcombe 1988).

Implementing a Plan

The planning group should establish a master schedule for implementation that can be monitored. It will identify the dates of major milestones — when particular activities will occur or when reports are due *(see Activity 2-7, "A Closer Look at Your Mentoring Site: Driving Forces and Restraining Forces," on page 2-57 and Activity 2-8, "Developing an Action Plan for the Implementation of a Mentoring Program," on page 2-59).*

This group will also be charged with developing procedures and recommendations for policies concerning the mentoring program. For example, the creation of procedures and recommendations regarding release time will be important for implementation. Release time, a critical component of a mentoring program, is the element that is the most complex to facilitate and establish. To overcome some of this challenge, the planning group needs to:

- define release time;
- establish procedures on how to arrange for release time;
- articulate its purpose (for example, to participate in training, district meetings, new teachers' and mentors' in-service or continuing education; to provide regular and frequent opportunities for mentors and new teachers to meet during the year; to observe each other; and to hold post-conferences);
- identify the minimum amount of release time available to a mentor and a new teacher during the year;
- determine a minimum number of observations required per year; and
- determine whether there will be a "release time" bank for all mentors and new teachers to access.

The completion of these tasks by the planning group will take time, patience, thought, and hard work. Although there will still be challenges to overcome during the implementation, the planning group's work will cut down on the number of those challenges.

How Do Schools and/or Districts Implement a Mentoring Program?

Once a program has been designed, it gains life through piloting or implementation (see **Figure 2.2** on page 2-10). It is the time to resolve issues in action, not in theory. In this section, we address challenges that frequently arise in execution:

- meeting the changing needs of new teachers during their first year of professional life and seeing how those changes might affect assistance provided by a mentor;
- selecting mentors;
- assigning and -- at times -- reassigning mentors to new teachers;
- dealing with out-of-subject or out-of-building assignments;
- finding time to meet;
- providing relevant training and support activities for mentors and new teachers; and
- maintaining a supportive climate.

How Is the Assistance Mentors Provide Determined by the Changing Needs of New Teachers?

Over the last two decades, research has done much to reveal the needs of new teachers. **Figure 2.3**, on page 2-11, presents a composite of needs common to beginning teachers that are divided into seven categories: "instructional, system, resource, emotional, managerial, parental, and disciplinary" (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987, 53). Although this is a starting point, it is critical to note that teacher's personal characteristics, preparation for teaching, and experience, as well as the teaching environment, will affect which needs are important to him or her.

Figure 2.2 Proposed Time Line for Implementing a Mentoring Program

Year 2 (corresponds to Year 2 in Figure 2.1)

Months 3-4	Develop application form for mentors
Months 5-9	Develop first drafts of handbooks for mentors and new teachers
Month 6	Advertise for mentors, encourage experienced teachers to apply for new role, and distribute application forms
Months 7-8	Review applications and select those individuals who will comprise the pool of mentors for the following year
Months 9-11	Collect preliminary evaluation data on the selection process; finalize evaluation design for the pilot program
Months 10-11	Assign mentor/new teacher(s) teams or allow mentors and new teachers to choose their own pairs or teams; schedule common meeting and planning time for pairs or teams
Month 11 or 12	Conduct two-day training session for administrators and mentors
Month 12	Conduct one-day orientation session for mentors, new teachers, and administrators

Year 3

Months 1-11	Implement first year of pilot program
Months 2-9	Provide a variety of professional development opportunities, on at least a bimonthly basis, for mentors, new teachers, and administrators together or in role-alike groups (for example, training sessions, seminars, professional dialogues)
Months 3-4	Revise application form and process for selection of mentors
Month 6	Accept applications for mentors during the second year of the pilot program
Months 7-8	Review applications and select second cadre of mentors
Months 8-9	Collect and analyze evaluation data from the first year of the pilot program
Month 9	Hold celebration for mentors and new teachers upon completion of the first year
Months 9-10	Revise handbooks and mentoring program based upon analysis of evaluation data
Months 10-11	Assign mentor/new teacher(s) teams or pairs
Month 11 or 12	Conduct two-day training session for administrators and mentors
Month 12	Conduct one-day orientation session for mentors, new teachers, and administrators

Note: Circumstances in local districts will impact any time line. This is only a proposed time line.

Figure 2.3 Needs of Beginning Teachers Identified in the Literature

Instructional Needs

- Planning long-range curriculum, preparing units and lessons, and organizing learning activities
- Using a variety of teaching methods and materials, strategies, and techniques
- Addressing the special needs of students and individualizing instruction
- Assessing and reporting on student progress

System Needs

- Gaining knowledge of school district policies and procedures
- Becoming acquainted with the school's and district's community

Resource Needs

- Receiving advice on resources and materials for teaching
- Obtaining materials and supplies

Emotional Needs

- Overcoming feelings of isolation
- Interacting with colleagues
- Preparing for and coping with one's own evaluation by school or district personnel

Managerial Needs

- Receiving additional techniques on classroom management
- Managing time

Parental Needs

- Communicating and relating to parents

Disciplinary Needs

- Motivating and disciplining students

Sources: Adapted with permission of the Association of Teacher Educators from "Functional Approach to Identification of New Teacher Needs in an Induction Context" by Sandra J. Odell, Catherine E. Loughlin, and Douglas P. Ferraro, *Action in Teacher Education* 8 (4): 53, (c) 1987; Association of Teacher Educators from "Developing Support Programs for Beginning Teachers" in *Assisting the Beginning Teacher* by Sandra J. Odell, (c) 1989; *Teacher Induction*, (c) 1989, NEA Professional Library, reprinted with permission; Oregon Department of Education from *Promoting Collaboration and Collegiality: A Handbook for Mentors in the Oregon Beginning Teacher Support Program*, (c) 1990; and the American Educational Research Association from "Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers" by Simon Veenman, (c) 1984 by American Educational Research Association. Adapted with permission of the publisher.

As new teachers continue to develop, their needs, concerns, and questions change over the course of the year (refer to sections on adult and teacher development and change in Chapter 1). This variability in needs is evidenced in at least three studies. In 1969, Fuller found student teachers' concerns with self were prevalent in the first three weeks of their student teaching, and pupil-centered concerns were not evidenced until the end of their student teaching (Fuller 1969). An evaluation of Connecticut's Beginning Educator Support Training Program in 1989 found that support for "survival" -- a concern of self -- was high among new teachers at the beginning of the year, then tapered off, and increased again at the end of the year. In 1987, Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro's study of 18 elementary school teachers and their nine veteran, support teachers discovered that the concerns new teachers raised with their support teachers varied as follows:

- questions related to instructional needs ranked first or second in frequency throughout the year;
- questions concerning the system and resources were particularly important in the first month of school;
- questions regarding personal support were reasonably high in the first month and maintained a moderately intense level throughout the year;
- questions on management and organization occurred at the beginning of each semester and at the end of the school year;
- questions concerning discipline were relevant at the beginning of each semester and infrequent as the semester wore on; and
- questions regarding parental needs remained strong through the end of the first set of parent conferences and abated thereafter (Odell, Ferraro, and Loughlin 1987, 54-55).

These examples are offered to underscore the importance of assessing the common needs of new teachers in your school or district, identifying the concerns of individual new teachers throughout the year, and building a mentoring program that will meet these needs throughout the year.

How Do You Select Mentors?

In establishing selection criteria for mentors in your school or district, it might be helpful for the planning group or the mentor selection committee to review the qualities of mentors offered by the literature (see **Figure 2.4** on page 2-13). In choosing those that are relevant to your particular situation, you need to apply your knowledge of the local context and the purpose of your school's or district's program to make decisions. As you make your selections, you may also discover additional characteristics you wish to add. An applicant's qualities can be assessed in several ways by a variety of individuals. Some qualities can be evaluated most appropriately through application forms, interviews, letters of recommendation, informal conversations, records of continuing professional development, observations, or videotapes.

Individuals with information to share include an applicant's colleagues -- teachers and administrators with whom they have worked, personnel directors, students, parents, and community members.

The sources of information depend on the quality being assessed. For example, an applicant's ability to work with adults can be inferred from the perceptions of his or her success in working on school or community committees that are held by fellow committee members. In another instance, an applicant's tendency to be an active, open learner can be evaluated by his or her record of participation in professional development activities such as:

Figure 2.4 Qualities, Skills, and Abilities of Mentors

Mentors are:

- excellent classroom teachers;
- committed to education as a profession;
- willing to expand their teaching responsibilities to include working with colleagues who are entering the profession;
- active and open learners who are willing to read and participate in training sessions to enhance or build upon their mentoring and teaching skills;
- reflective and analytical about their own teaching;
- good problem solvers (for example, can structure a problem, generate alternative solutions, choose the most appropriate solution, implement that solution, and evaluate its effectiveness);
- wise and caring;
- open to differences in style and background of students and colleagues;
- sensitive and responsive to the ideas of others;
- skilled in planning, organizing, and managing work;
- familiar with the organizational structure of their school and district, their social norms, and their policies and procedures regarding curriculum and personnel;
- aware of available resources and resource personnel; and
- knowledgeable about their school's and district's community and its student composition.

Mentors have:

- a desire to become mentors and to make their mentoring relationship work;
- three to five years of successful teaching experience;
- high expectations for themselves and the profession;
- successful working and teaching experiences with adults;
- excellent communication skills (for example, the ability to transmit knowledge and practice of teaching to new teachers and colleagues, utilize appropriate questioning techniques, and practice reflective listening);
- a wide variety of instructional skills, and knowledge of the curriculum and content of teaching;
- an understanding of learning theories, human growth and development, principles of evaluation, student evaluation, and diversity of students' backgrounds;
- an ability to assess new situations in which conflicts in values and expectations might be defined or identified as personal conflict;
- high integrity;
- a sense of humor; and
- an ability to offer unconditional support to new teachers.

Mentors can:

- act as catalysts for change;
- resolve conflicts; and
- enlist their colleagues and the school's or district's staff to support new teachers.

Sources: Adapted with permission of Odell 1987, 1989a, and 1989b, Op. Cit., 2-11; Ohio Department of Education, from *Assisting the Entry-Year Teacher: A Leadership Resource*, (c) 1990; Oregon Department of Education, Op. Cit., 2-11; Zimpher, N. and Rieger, S., 1988, "Mentoring Teachers: What Are the Issues?" *Theory Into Practice* 27 (3), (c) 1988 College of Education, The Ohio State University.

- participation in professional development activities or continuing education courses at a university;
- attendance at regional or national conferences of professional associations;
- experimentation with new instructional techniques in the classroom; and
- involvement with student teachers.

How Do You Assign and Reassign Mentors?

Experience has shown that several factors should be observed in assigning mentors to new teachers to ensure more effective relationships, and that procedures must be in place to enable reassignments when necessary. Key factors to be considered in assigning mentors include age and gender, grade level and content area, physical proximity, teaching style, and ideology.

There is general agreement that it is important to assign mentors to new teachers who teach the same subject and grade level and have ready access to each other (for example, in adjoining classrooms, on the same floor, in the same building). In addition to sharing common content areas or grade levels, mentoring relationships form best when teaching style and ideology mesh (Oregon Department of Education 1990; Odell 1989a; Mager 1988; Newcombe 1988; Ward 1986; Huling-Austin, Barnes, and Smith 1985). These conditions are ideal and cannot always be met.

Occasionally, mentoring relationships will not work for both members of a team. Procedures that enable the mentor or the new teacher to address his/her concerns to a third party for resolution need to be in place. Some districts have discovered that training a "pool" of mentors each year allows them the flexibility to reassign mentors to new teachers when a relationship falters or to match a mentor to a new teacher who is hired in the middle of the school year. A mentoring relationship that does not work need not be seen as failure, but rather as a difference in style.

How Do You Deal with Special Situations in Mentoring Programs?

In some schools or districts, particularly those in rural areas, it may be difficult to match a new teacher with a mentor in the same building, or who teaches the same subject matter, or the same grade level. Again, some districts and schools have dealt with these problems and have potential solutions. Their solutions are offered in **Appendix 2-F** on page 2-97.

How Do You Find Time to Meet?

To some, the most difficult task of implementing a mentoring program is scheduling time for mentors and new teachers to meet informally or for observations and conferences. Others see this as an interesting challenge that is overcome with creative scheduling *(see Activity 2-9, "Say When: The Mentor's Gift of Time," on page 2-65)*. Either way, it will be an issue in most schools and districts. The following are suggestions from teachers or administrators who are involved in mentoring programs:

- release mentors and new teachers from noninstructional duties;
- schedule common preparation times once or twice a week for mentor(s) and new teacher(s) to discuss issues of concern to new teachers;
- arrange for mentors and new teachers to share a common break time or lunch period for informal interaction;

- assign mentors and new teachers to similar extra duties related to their instructional assignments;
- employ a roving substitute one or two days each month;
- utilize central office staff, building administrators, and faculty from local teacher training institutions as roving substitutes one or two times a month;
- utilize volunteer substitute teachers, employ retired teachers, or use visiting teachers (for example, experts from nature centers, museums, or industry who come to teach a class);
- have veteran teachers present a lesson to two classes; and/or
- provide opportunities for team teaching, demonstration lessons, and observations that benefit students in both teachers' classrooms.

How Do You Provide Relevant Training and Support Activities for Mentors?

As indicated earlier, one of the key elements for the success of mentoring programs is training mentors for the important task they are undertaking. Just as the teacher in the vignette (see Introduction), who is contemplating the prospect of mentoring a new teacher, mentors will be asking the following questions:

- Do I have the necessary skills to mentor a new teacher?
- How formal or informal will the relationship be?
- How long will my involvement with the new teacher last?
- What kind of support, compensation, and time will be offered to me?
- Will I have to go beyond providing support to evaluating a new teacher?

Questions of this nature will be raised by mentors throughout the mentoring experience. The answers provided through training and networking with other mentors, colleagues, administrators, and faculty from teacher training institutions will allay fears and strengthen programs.

The training should provide opportunities that enable mentors to:

- study the broad issue of the induction of new teachers into their school, district, community, and profession;
- enhance or expand upon the knowledge and skills needed to assist new teachers; and
- share techniques, experiences, and learnings with other mentors (Odell 1989a).

Most schools or districts offer these opportunities in two stages or time frames. First, the skills and knowledge needed prior to the beginning of a mentoring experience are presented in a two- to five-day training session for mentors before school starts in the fall. Second, training and support activities are provided for mentors throughout their first year of mentoring (Ohio Department of Education 1990). In addition, some districts provide a one-day orientation for mentors, new teachers, and administrators (Greece Central School District 1990) or training for mentors in their subsequent years of mentoring based on their unique needs. See **Figure 2.5** on page 2-16 for an example of one district's training program.

Figure 2.5 Orientation and Training Activities Provided to Mentors by the Greece (NY) Central School District in School Year 1990–91

Mid-July	Two-day training session on peer coaching for experienced and new mentors
24 August	One-day orientation for mentors, administrators, and new teachers - introduction of mentor/intern pairs - discussion on networking - definition of expectations - introduction to administrators - training on self-awareness, communication skills, and mentor-intern bonding - introduction of each mentor/intern pair to its liaison to the Steering Committee for the district's program
November	Regional workshop on adult learning theory
April	Regional workshop on integrative learning, thinking skills, and reflection with counterparts from other school districts

Source: Adapted with permission of the Greece (NY) Central School District, from *Mentoring Project Handbook 1990-91*, (c) 1990, 5-6.

Orientation programs for mentors, administrators, and -- at times -- new teachers stress:

- an introduction to the state's or district's standards and program;
- the definition of expectations for mentors, new teachers, and administrators;
- the resources available within and outside the school or district (for example, handbooks, program directors, mentors -- both current and previous, administrators, other faculty or staff members, faculty from teacher training institutions, resource centers, teacher centers, colleges and universities, state education agencies); and
- specific training in areas of need during the first few weeks of a mentoring experience (for example, techniques or tips on how to develop a trusting relationship, how to communicate effectively).

This orientation for mentors should be followed up by training that continues to support them throughout the year. The content of this training will vary depending on the needs of mentors in your school or district. Topics reflected in programs presented by some schools and districts include:

- developing a trusting relationship;
- assessing new teachers' needs;
- using coaching strategies (for example, conducting a preconference, observing new teachers in their classrooms, scripting a lesson, maintaining anecdotal records, conducting a post conference, linking new teachers to resources);

- becoming knowledgeable of supervision (for example, knowledge and utilization of effective teaching and communication practices);
- understanding and utilizing the theories of adult development and the change process as they relate to mentoring;
- fostering a disposition toward the analysis of one's own teaching practices;
- determining appropriate supports and challenges; and
- facilitating independence.

In addition to these more formal training events, learning and sharing will occur on a daily basis as mentors and new teachers talk informally with other mentors, colleagues, new teachers, and administrators.

How Do You Provide Relevant Training and Support for New Teachers?

No one can deny the importance of training and support to mentors participating in a mentoring program, but these components should also be afforded to new teachers. A recent study revealed that training for new teachers in California appears to be most powerful when it:

- is practical and relevant to their needs;
- is conducted at times and in places which are consistent with other demands that are placed on them;
- is attended by new teachers and their mentors;
- is held at least once a month;
- addresses a breadth of content in sufficient detail to help new teachers develop a range of pedagogical skills, knowledge, and instructional approaches;
- offers them opportunities to discuss their own needs and concerns;
- is followed up by activities to ensure that new teachers use the skills and knowledge in their classrooms; and
- is compensated and/or provides other perquisites for participation (for example, credit, stipends) (Wagner, Ward, and Dianda 1990, 9).

Mentors will provide much of the training and support to new teachers through their relationship and activities affiliated with the mentoring program, but new teachers can receive support from other mentors, experienced teachers, new teachers, and faculty from teacher-preparation institutions. Many districts provide additional training to new teachers through their staff development programs or in collaboration with or through teacher centers or universities. Topics frequently addressed are:

- understanding cultural diversity and special needs as they impact on student learning;
- classroom management;
- cooperative learning;
- instructional strategies;
- communication skills; and
- utilization of technology.

As mentors benefit from interacting with their counterparts, so, too, will new teachers (see **Figure 2.6** below).

Figure 2.6 Orientation and Training Activities Provided to New Teachers by the Greece (NY) Central School District in the School Year 1990–91

August	Initial orientation focused on self-awareness, communication skills, and mentor-intern bonding
September	Awareness of school, community, and district pupil services resources
October	Parent conferencing program at Greece Teacher Center
November	Fall regional workshop focused on adult learning theory
December	Time management
March	Classroom management
April	Spring regional workshop including time for reflection and sharing

Source: Greece (NY) Central School District, Op. Cit., 2-16: 7.

How Can a School or District Effectively Support a Mentoring Program?

In order to succeed, a mentoring program and its participants must receive support from a variety of sources (for example, from the superintendent and school board to the individual in a school who schedules classes). Manifestations of this support could include:

- districtwide and building meetings for mentors and new teachers, both together and separately;
- financial support, continuing education credits, or attendance at professional conferences;
- support for formal orientation meetings, workshops, structured observations, conferences, and joint planning time through provision of release time or creative scheduling;
- modification of assignments or release from noninstructional duties;
- assignment of a liaison to the governing body of the district's program upon whom the mentor and new teacher can call in times of need; and
- celebrations for mentors and new teachers at the conclusion of the mentoring year.

Many districts have developed handbooks to assist mentors and new teachers in their new roles. These can be created by mentors and new teachers, by staff from the district's professional development office or the region's teacher center, or by a subgroup of the planning group. The handbooks often contain the following:

- a calendar for the school year with a list of miscellaneous activities and professional development activities for each month;

- a history of the district's program;
- a description of roles (for example, mentor, new teacher, administrator, other faculty members, faculty from teacher-preparation institutions);
- a checklist for preparing for the first day of school;
- a list of resources (for example, state education agency, teacher centers, libraries, local colleges and universities, conferences) with accompanying contact persons, addresses, and telephone numbers;
- information on the school district and the teachers' union (for example, the district's philosophy, purpose and members of the school board, personnel flow chart for the district, special services available in the district, a list of curriculum guides, an organizational structure for the teachers' union, the contract between the teachers' union and the district, district committees, the credit union, discipline policies);
- a tool for needs assessment;
- recertification/relicensing procedures and contact people; and
- other pertinent information.

Although some information for mentors and new teachers will be universal, much of what your district's handbook contains will depend on the needs of your district and the mentors and new teachers using it. Just as the mentoring program or a portion of it is evaluated annually, so should the handbook be reviewed and revised.

What Are the Roles and Responsibilities of Participants in a Mentoring Program?

A consistent message in the research, the literature, and this guidebook is that the success of a mentoring program depends on several individuals and institutions. Each of these individuals and institutions has particular roles and responsibilities to fulfill as discussed below and displayed in **Figures 2.7** and **2.8** on pages 2-20 and 2-21.

Mentor

Mentors adopt a multitude of roles, as shown in **Figure 2.7** on page 2-20, in their relationships to new teachers. In addition, they are perceived as leaders by their peers. As mentors work to establish trusting relationships with new teachers, they undertake a variety of activities. Among these might be:

- sharing information with new teachers related to school or district procedures, guidelines, and expectations;
- linking new teachers to appropriate resources, both human and material;
- sharing teaching strategies or information about the instructional process;
- offering support through empathic listening and by sharing experiences;
- giving guidance and ideas related to discipline, scheduling, planning, and organizing the school day;

Figure 2.7 Selected Roles of Participants in a Mentoring Program

Mentor	New Teachers	Administrators (Site- and District-Based)	Other Faculty	School Board	Teacher-Preparation Institutions	State Education Agencies
Guide	Learner	Policymaker	Planner	Policymaker	Trainer	Policymaker
Teacher	Teacher	Planner	Supporter	Supporter	Researcher	Trainer
Coach		Supporter	Teacher	Planner	Evaluator	Coordinator
Counselor		Teacher	Coach		Facilitator	Linker/Broker
Advisor		Coach			Supporter	
Sponsor						
Linker						
Researcher						
Leader						
Role Model						
Colleague						

- assisting new teachers in arranging, organizing, and analyzing the physical setting of the classroom;
- counseling new teachers when difficulties arise;
- allowing new teachers to observe them or their colleagues teach a lesson and discuss it;
- promoting self-observation and analysis;
- demonstrating and coaching for more complex reflection and instructional practice;
- promoting systematic study of their students' engagement in structured, problem-solving activities;
- modeling professionalism (for example, collegiality with peers, continuing professional development); and
- conducting action research (Odell 1989a; Odell 1989b; Zimpher and Rieger 1988; Schon 1990; Oregon Department of Education 1990; Mahoney and Iritz 1990).

New Teachers

New teachers, as participants in this relationship, have a set of roles and responsibilities to fulfill also. First, they are learners -- ready to hone their craft in the classroom, to develop their own teaching styles, and to enhance their students' learning. Like their mentors, they are also teachers who bring knowledge of new instructional practices to their colleagues.

They are responsible for working with their mentors and other colleagues to successfully complete a positive, first-year teaching experience. To achieve that, they will:

- complete a self-evaluation of their needs;
- participate in training sessions, professional dialogues, and seminars on a variety of topics related to those needs;
- be active listeners and learners (for example, know what they need and set out to obtain it);
- learn from coaching and counseling from mentors and colleagues;

Figure 2.8 Some of the Responsibilities of Participants in Mentoring Programs

Mentor	**New Teacher**	**Administrators** (Site- and District-Based)	**Other Faculty**	**School Board**	**Teacher-Preparation Institutions**	**State Education Agency**
Orients new teachers to school, district, and community Links new teachers to resources Provides continuing systematic support to new teachers Enables new teachers to analyze their teaching practice Facilitates or assists in professional development of new teachers Attends all mentor training programs Models continual professional development and assists new teacher in designing own professional development plan Participates in evaluation of mentoring program Assists in development or revision of program for next year	Plans, teaches, facilitates, and evaluates progress of students in own classroom Participates in needs assessments Develops own professional development plan for year Participates in variety of professional development activities (for example, training activities for new teachers, cross visitations with mentors and other faculty) Meets and conferences with mentor or mentoring team on a regular basis Participates in evaluation of mentoring program Assists in revision of program for next year	Supervise and evaluate new teachers (S) Facilitate faculty and community awareness and support for mentoring program (for example, personnel, resources, programs, and organizational structure) (S, D) Serve on planning group and on mentor selection committee (S, D) Participate in orientation and training sessions (S, D) Develop schedules for release time or common planning, observation, or conferencing time (S) Recognize and plan for changes in interpersonal and interorganizational relationships (S, D) Meet with mentors and new teachers at least two to three times per year (S, D) Coordinate programs throughout the district (D) Provide professional development activities for program participants (D) Ensure and participate in program evaluation (S) Supervise evaluation of program (D) Assist in development or revision of program for next year (S, D) Establish collaborative relationships with local colleges and universities (D)	Serve on planning group Serve on mentor selection committee Support mentoring program Assist in creating a supportive teaching environment in the school, encourage collegiality Provide direct assistance to new teachers as arranged through mentors Participate in evaluation of mentoring program	Establishes policy to make mentoring of new teachers one of the district's priorities Ensures support for mentoring program (for example, personnel, resources, programs) Establishes planning group Serves on planning group Approves a district position, full- or part-time, to coordinate a mentoring program Reviews evaluation of mentoring program	Focus on reflection in preservice training Serve as member of multi-constituency planning group, if proximity permits Contract with district to provide training to mentors, new teachers, and/or administrators; evaluate the program; facilitate group seminars for mentors and new teachers; or coordinate action research Serve as member of a mentoring team for new teachers Function as substitute to release new teacher for conferencing, planning, professional development, or cross-visitations Provide content resource in rural or urban districts	Works with interested parties to establish program guidelines Provides technical assistance to local districts Coordinates and establishes communication networks Shares information with and links districts to resources Conducts regional meetings for mentors and new teachers Consults with colleagues in state education agencies in the region

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- observe their mentors and colleagues teach, and expand their repertoire of teaching practices; and
- learn how to more effectively meet the needs of all their students.

Administrators

Administrators are policymakers, planners, supporters, public relations officials, and evaluators. The focus of these roles varies depending on their position -- whether they are at the building or district level. Assistant superintendents for personnel development must consider the professional development needs of all mentors and new teachers in their districts, while principals may be more concerned about those mentors, new teachers, and other faculty members in their own buildings.

An administrator might serve on a planning group, participate in evaluating a mentoring program, and assist in the development or revision of a program for the following year. However, they also have some very distinct responsibilities that determine whether a program succeeds. Among these are:

- the facilitation of faculty and community awareness and support for the program (for example, financial and human resources);
- the creation of schedules that provide release time or common periods for mentors and new teachers so they have time for planning, observation, and conferencing;
- the recognition of the changes that will occur in interpersonal and interorganizational relationships in a mentoring program, planning for those changes, and guiding their staff through those changes;
- the provision of relevant and timely professional development activities for mentors, new teachers, and other faculty members; and
- the establishment of collaborative relationships with outside organizations or agencies (teacher-preparation institutions, state education agencies, teacher centers) that strengthen the mentoring program.

In most districts, administrators are also ultimately responsible for the supervision and evaluation of new teachers. In those states or districts in which mentors also have this responsibility, administrators and mentors will jointly share this obligation.

Other Faculty

The roles of other faculty members are quite similar to those of mentors: planner, supporter, teacher, and coach. Their most critical responsibility is one of creating a supportive teaching environment that encourages collegiality within their school. In this role, they become extensions of the assigned mentors. They, too, can support new teachers by providing them with direct assistance as arranged by mentors, serve on planning groups, participate in the evaluation of mentoring programs, and assist in the revision of programs.

School Board

School boards are vital links in the successful implementation of mentoring programs. Their support comes primarily from their policies, such as:

- making the mentoring of new teachers one of the district's priorities;
- creating a multiconstituent planning group;
- providing the personnel and resources necessary to make the mentoring program successful; and
- approving a district position, full- or part-time, to coordinate the program.

In addition, school board members could serve on the planning group and would be the recipients of the evaluation of the mentoring program.

Teacher-Preparation Institutions

Faculty members at teacher-preparation institutions can provide a variety of services to a local district's mentoring program. Their role could be one of trainer, researcher, program evaluator, facilitator, and supporter. In these roles, they could:

- serve as a member of the planning group -- if their proximity permits;
- serve as a member of a team of individuals who are mentoring a new teacher;
- function as a substitute to release new teachers or mentors for conferencing, observation, planning, or professional development; or
- contract with a district to provide a variety of services (for example, training to participants, facilitating dialogues among participants, evaluating the program, or coordinating research on the effectiveness of the program).

State Education Agencies

State education agencies and their staffs function as policymakers, trainers, coordinators, linkers, and brokers. Their responsibilities include:

- working with interested parties to establish program guidelines;
- providing technical assistance to local districts;
- coordinating and establishing communication networks;
- sharing information, research, and resources on mentoring with districts;
- conducting meetings within the states for mentors and new teachers; and
- consulting and working with colleagues in state education agencies in their region.

Conclusion

The design and implementation of a mentoring program demands much time, thought, care, and support from many people. In order to succeed, a mentoring program requires:

- participation of teachers, administrators, professional organizations, faculty from local teacher-preparation institutions, parents, community members, and school board members in its planning and implementation;
- adequate time for developing and implementing plans and allowing change to occur;

- time built into schedules of new teachers and mentors that allows each to observe the other teaching, to plan, and to confer with one another after observations;
- development of a fair selection process with systematic procedures that are clearly articulated and adhered to in practice;
- ongoing administrative support;
- training for mentors to enable them to effectively carry out their new role;
- sufficient funding to cover the costs inherent in the program as well as to study its effectiveness; and
- the assignment of new teachers to mentors located in the same building and teaching the same subject or grade, if possible.

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 2

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
2-1. Building the Foundation (page 2-27)	To help districts establish a multiconstituent planning group or steering committee	90 minutes	Awareness	Small- and large-group discussion
2-2. Developing a Mentoring Program (page 2-31)	To become acquainted with literature and practice concerning the goals, design, and implementation of mentoring programs and the roles and responsibilities of their participants	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise
2-3. Onward and Upward: Developing a Mission Statement for a Mentoring Program (page 2-35)	To identify shared values and beliefs about mentoring, develop a unified vision of what mentoring can accomplish, recognize a purposeful direction to achieve that vision, and draft a collaborative mission statement	A few hours to one day or more	Awareness Skill Development Application	Individual work Small- and large-group discussion and consensus building
2-4. Teachers and Administrators: What Are Their Roles? (page 2-41)	To examine the roles of those involved in the mentoring process	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Interviewing
2-5. What Makes a Good Mentor? (page 2-53)	To identify the characteristics of good mentors	40 minutes	Awareness	Nominal group process
2-6. Teachers' Needs (page 2-55)	To identify the similarities and differences between the needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers	60-90 minutes	Awareness Application	Jigsaw exercise
2-7. A Closer Look at Your Mentoring Site: Driving Forces and Restraining Forces (page 2-57)	To have the multiconstituent planning group do a force-field analysis of its mentoring site and begin to develop an action plan	60 minutes	Awareness Planning	Small-group work Large-group work
2-8. Developing an Action Plan for the Implementation of a Mentoring Program (page 2-59)	To develop a specific plan for the implementation of a mentoring program	Several sessions up to 120 minutes each	Planning	Small- or large-group work
2-9. Say When: The Mentor's Gift of Time (page 2-65)	To generate a list of options to provide time for mentors to work with new teachers	60 minutes	Awareness Planning	Small-group discussion Brainstorming

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ACTIVITY 2-1

BUILDING THE FOUNDATION

Purpose(s):	To help districts establish a multiconstituent planning group or steering committee
Materials:	Overheads entitled "Potential Members of a Multiconstituent Planning Group for a Mentoring Program" and "Procedural, Governance, and Resource Issues Regarding the Establishment of Multiconstituent Planning Groups"; overhead projector and screen; newsprint; easels; and markers

Trainer's Notes: You might find it helpful to review "How to Make an Activity Your Own: A Working Checklist" in Appendix 2-A on page 2-75 and the "Guide to Facilitation" in Appendix 2-B on page 2-77 prior to conducting this or any of the activities in Chapter 2. The material in Appendix 2-A presents a checklist of items to consider when you customize an activity to meet your own needs. Appendix 2-B identifies particular facilitator skills and behaviors that can contribute to the success of your sessions.

This activity is intended for those districts that are considering the development of a mentoring program. It is designed for school or district teams whose membership could include teachers, representatives from professional associations, school board members, superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, professional development coordinators, and others. The outcomes are a list of proposed members of a multiconstituent planning group in a school or district and proposed answers to procedural, governance, and resource issues that need to be addressed before a multiconstituent planning group is established.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form school/district teams.
2. Have each team identify a recorder to write the team's responses on newsprint.
3. Using the overhead "Potential Members of a Multiconstituent Planning Group for a Mentoring Program," address the importance of having representatives of each constituency on the planning group.
4. Ask each school/district team to identify the constituent groups who should be members of its planning team and determine why their membership is important.
5. Using the overhead "Procedural, Governance, and Resource Issues Regarding the Establishment of Multiconstituent Planning Groups," have the teams answer the questions listed, in terms of their own school community, putting their responses on newsprint.
6. In the large group, have each team share responses to the question that generated the most discussion and identify how the context of the school community influenced the responses.

Time Required: 90 minutes

POTENTIAL MEMBERS OF A MULTICONSTITUENT PLANNING GROUP FOR A MENTORING PROGRAM

- Teachers (mentors and second-year teachers, if possible)
- Administrators (central office and site-based)
- Representatives of the district's professional associations
- School board members
- Parents and community members
- Faculty from teacher preparatory institutions
- Representatives from state education agencies

PROCEDURAL, GOVERNANCE, AND RESOURCE ISSUES REGARDING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF MULTICONSTITUENT PLANNING GROUPS

1. How should members be selected, for example, by invitation, nomination, or election?

2. Are there any state or local regulations or procedures that will impact the planning group's membership, operation, and authority? If so, what are they? How will they affect the group's membership, operation, and authority?

3. What is the planning group's authority, for example, advisory, governing, or policymaking?

4. What is the charge of the planning group, for example, planning, implementing, and/or evaluating?

5. How will this group make decisions, for example, majority rule or consensus?

6. What are the resources needed for this group to function effectively?

ACTIVITY 2-2

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM

Purpose(s): To become acquainted with literature and practice concerning the goals, design, and implementation of mentoring programs and the roles and responsibilities of their participants

Materials: Directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 2-C, enough copies of the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 2" and the text of Chapter 2 for each participant, newsprint, easels, and markers

Trainer's Notes: You should read Chapter 2 prior to conducting this activity. Knowledge of its contents will help you to answer questions that arise.

You might also find it helpful to refer to the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 2-C on page 2-83. Deviation from the general directions is noted below.

This is a cooperative learning activity. As a process, the jigsaw can be used in a variety of ways. You might encourage participants to consider its use in their classrooms.

You will need to have or make enough copies of Chapter 2 for each participant. Although participants will be responsible for reading excerpts from this chapter, most of them will appreciate receiving the entire chapter to read at their leisure. As it cannot be divided into excerpts of the same length, participants would also have the opportunity to read other sections if time permitted.

It is suggested that the chapter be divided into the following sections:

> "What Are the Goals of a Mentoring Program?" and "How Do Schools and/or Districts Design a Mentoring Program?" on pages 2-1 through 2-9;
>
> "How Do Schools and/or Districts Implement a Mentoring Program?" on pages 2-9 through 2-19; and
>
> "What Are the Roles and Responsibilities of Participants in a Mentoring Program?" on pages 2-19 through 2-24.

If your context permits, you might find it helpful to share the chapter with participants in advance. This will allow for more thoughtful reading and enable more time for sharing in expert groups.

So that participants will be able to refer to the focus questions during their reading, you may wish to have them on newsprint, an overhead, or on a separate piece of paper that can be distributed to each participant. The questions may also need to be modified to fit your context.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of a jigsaw activity -- to provide a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about topics that have been selected, in this case, the theory presented in the second chapter on developing a mentoring program.

2. Share the questions on the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 2." This will offer participants a focus to their reading.

3. Have participants form home groups of three. Briefly describe each excerpt so that participants can make an informed choice. Then, ask each member of the home group to choose one of the three excerpts.

4. Have participants read their excerpts independently.

5. Then, form homogeneous or expert groups. These participants have all read the same article. Have them discuss, identify, and record on newsprint:

    - major themes of their excerpt from Chapter 2;
    - attitudes, structures, or policies that currently exist in their school, district, or community that support these themes;
    - attitudes, structures, or policies that currently exist in their school, district, or community that inhibit these themes; and
    - means to build on the available supports and reduce the impact of the inhibitors.

6. Ask participants to return to their home groups. From their section of the chapter, have experts share one major theme, a support, an inhibitor, and one way that the group can build on available supports or reduce the impact of an inhibitor.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

FOCUS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION OF CHAPTER 2

1. What are the general themes of your section?

2. What attitudes, structures, or policies currently exist in your school, district, or community that support these themes?

3. What attitudes, structures, or policies currently exist in your school, district, or community that inhibit these themes?

4. How can you build on the available supports and reduce the impact of the inhibitors?

ACTIVITY 2-3

ONWARD AND UPWARD: DEVELOPING A MISSION STATEMENT FOR A MENTORING PROGRAM

Purpose(s): To identify shared values and beliefs about mentoring, develop a unified vision of what mentoring can accomplish, recognize a purposeful direction to achieve that vision, and draft a collaborative mission statement

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Mission Statement Development," "Criteria for a Mission Statement," and "Sample Mission Statement" for each participant; newsprint; easels; markers; scissors; tape; blank paper; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: Every program needs a mission statement. A mission statement clarifies what the program will do and will not do. A concise, well-conceived statement helps focus program development. It builds a sense of ownership with everyone who participates in the process of creating it, and it directs the delivery of the intended program. It also serves as a guidepost. Individuals may develop personal mission statements, yet these statements should be in alignment with the overall mission. The development of a mission statement should involve as many people as possible. While a smaller group may participate in the actual writing, everyone needs an opportunity to react and have input to drafts.

Mission, philosophy, and vision statements all propose to focus the energy of an initiative by capturing certain conceptual elements. Good statements of any kind usually answer three essential questions:

- What values and beliefs undergird this endeavor (philosophy)?
- What do we hope the results will be (vision)?
- What do we need to do to get there (mission)?

For this activity, we have selected the term *mission statement* to include all three conceptual elements.

It is important to complete many of the activities in Chapters 1 and 2 prior to this exercise so that participants are familiar with the literature and issues surrounding mentoring. Having had an opportunity to discover their own beliefs about the value of mentoring, they can then proceed more successfully in developing their own statement.

After the document is written, it is important to discuss how it will be used to guide decisions. It should be revisited at least annually and rewritten as necessary to clearly reflect an evolving program.

Source: Judy Carr and Douglas Harris, *Getting It Together: A Process Workout for K-12 Curriculum Development, Implementation, and Assessment*. Copyright (c) 1993 by Allyn and Bacon. Adapted with permission.

Process/Steps:

1. Provide each participant with a copy of the handout "Mission Statement Development."

2. Ask participants to work individually to complete the handout.

3. When handouts are completed, ask participants to take turns reading their responses to the first statement. Ask them to hold their discussion until all have had a chance to read their responses. Record common themes and discrepancies on newsprint.

4. Ask the group for comments and reactions. Summarize the discussion and check for accuracy with the participants.

5. Continue to lead the discussion to resolve areas of disagreement through clarification, compromise, or a decision to omit an area at this time.

6. Repeat the above steps with the other areas on the handout.

7. Provide participants with a copy of the handout "Criteria for a Mission Statement."

8. Divide the group into three subgroups for the purpose of drafting a mission statement. Remind participants to refer to the handout "Criteria for a Mission Statement" as they begin the next activity.

9. Cut up the completed "Mission Statement Development" handouts into their three sections and assign all the responses to statement 1 to subgroup 1 along with the newsprint comments, statement 2 to subgroup 2, and so on.

10. Assign each subgroup the task of writing the draft for that area of the mission statement based upon the areas of agreement on blank paper.

11. When all three subgroups have completed their task, tape them together and make enough copies for all of the members.

12. Work with the whole group to edit and refine the statement. Again attempt to resolve any areas that were omitted due to disagreement. Decide if these areas need to be noted with an asterisk (*) for further review at a later date.

13. Provide any available samples of mission statements to participants. (See example on page 2-39.)

14. Ask the group to assess these sample statements and their own draft. Ask for any other revision(s) of their statement.

15. Upon arriving at consensus, ask participants to plan how reactions from others will be solicited, decide when final approval will be sought, and determine how often this statement will be reviewed.

Time Required: This can be a time-consuming process, ranging from a few hours to one day or more.

MISSION STATEMENT DEVELOPMENT

1. The purpose of MENTORING is to ______________________________

2. MENTORING is most successful when ______________________________

3. The result of our MENTORING program will be ______________________________

CRITERIA FOR A MISSION STATEMENT

- Describes an audience or clients (who it's for)
- Describes your philosophy (for what purpose, why)
- Describes your vision (toward what end)
- Describes your actions, activities, process (what you do)
- Is concise
- Establishes what "business" you are in
- Is capable of common interpretation by all
- Provides the criteria for making choices about what you do
- Is achievement-oriented
- Provides a rallying point for people

Source: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services from *Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide,* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. Copyright (c) 1989.

SAMPLE MISSION STATEMENT

The purpose of mentoring is to make school experiences positive and productive for students and teachers by providing support and assistance to all teachers along the professional development continuum, i.e., preservice, induction, and in-service.

Mentoring is most successful when a culture exists in a school district that believes in continual improvement.

The results of our mentoring program will be more collaboration, collegiality, and risk taking among educators; improved instruction and student performance; and the retention of all teachers.

Source: Reprinted with permission of the authors, Robert Goudreau, Chittenden East (VT) Supervisory Union; Dennis Richards, Nashua (NH) Public Schools; and Lolly Templeton, University of Massachusetts-Amherst.

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ACTIVITY 2-4

TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS: WHAT ARE THEIR ROLES?

Purpose(s): To examine the roles of those involved in the mentoring process

Materials: Enough copies of handouts "Different Roles in a Mentoring Program" (having an equal number of handouts for each question) for the number of rows in this activity (see Trainer's Notes), stopwatch, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: Preplanning for this activity is very important. The interview design format requires chairs to be placed in rows, facing each other. The number of participants will determine the number of rows needed, for example:

Size	Possible Configurations	# of Questions
20	2 rows of 10 or 4 rows of 5	5 or 10
24	4 rows of 6 or 2 of 12	6 or 12
28	4 rows of 7	7
32	4 rows of 8	8
36	4 rows of 9	9

The rows must be arranged prior to the activity. If there are 4 rows of 6, then participants must receive a number 1 through 6. If there are 4 rows of 10, participants must receive a number 1 through 10. If applicable, other questions may be added such as, What is the role of the school board, teachers' association? (See optional questions 7-9, pages 2-49 through 2-51, or create your own.)

The questions are designed to gather data about what the group perceives as the role of the mentor, new teacher, principal, superintendent, other teachers (not involved in a mentoring relationship), and faculty from teacher-preparation programs in the mentoring process.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants sit in the chairs, making sure each person has someone sitting opposite them.

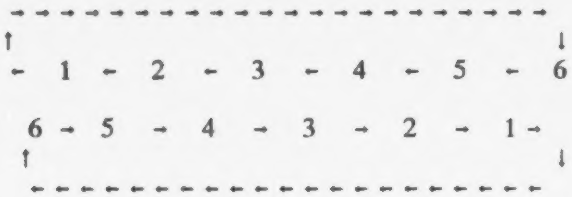
2. Distribute one handout to each participant.

3. Have each participant ask his or her question to the individual seated across from him or her. Allow three to five minutes for each response. (Have the person asking the question record all responses on his or her interview sheet. This includes duplicated responses.)

Source: Adapted with permission of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education from *Targets for Trainers: Taking Aim Toward More Productive Training* by Jackie Walsh. (c) 1989, I-31 through I-37.

4. After the first time segment of three to five minutes has elapsed, have the person who asked the first question respond to the question asked by the person sitting across from him or her, again allowing three to five minutes.

5. Following the first exchange of questions, have all participants move one seat to their right.



Have participants sitting at the end of each row walk behind their rows to the right and take the empty seat at the end of the row.

6. The process continues until each person has responded to all questions.

7. Request that participants who asked the same question form a group to compare responses and identify three or four major themes.

8. In the whole group, ask each small group to share the major themes for its question.

Time Required: 80-120 minutes

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 1:

What do you perceive the role of the mentor to be in a mentoring program?

Source: Walsh, Op. Cit., 2-41: I-17.

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 2:

What do you perceive the role of the new teacher to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 3:

What do you perceive the role of the principal to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 4:

What do you perceive the role of the superintendent to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 5:

What do you perceive the role of faculty from teacher-preparation programs to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 6:

What do you perceive the role of teachers not involved in a mentoring relationship to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 7 (optional):

What do you perceive the role of the school board to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 8 (optional):

What do you perceive the role of the teachers' association to be in a mentoring program?

DIFFERENT ROLES IN A MENTORING PROGRAM

Directions: Using the question below, interview the person across from you. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a given respondent as needed.

QUESTION 9 (optional):

What do you perceive the role for parents to be in a mentoring program?

ACTIVITY 2-5

WHAT MAKES A GOOD MENTOR?

Purpose(s): To identify the characteristics of good mentors

Materials: Newsprint, easels, markers, blank overhead, overhead projector and screen, overhead pens, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is a precursor to the development of a mentor selection process in a school or district. It will offer participants a chance to reflect on the characteristics of good mentors and to discern which of these characteristics are the most important.

You may wish to review the directions for "The Nominal Group Process" in Appendix 2-D on page 2-87 and the section entitled "How Do You Select Mentors?" on page 2-12 and Figure 2.4, "Qualities, Skills, and Abilities of Mentors," on page 2-13 in Chapter 2.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form groups of four or five. Ask each group to identify a recorder, who will write all responses on a sheet of newsprint.
2. Review directions for the nominal group process with the group (see Appendix 2-D).
3. Ask participants to identify characteristics important for being a good mentor, using the nominal group process. Have them clarify the meaning of any ambiguous characteristics and combine those that are similar.
4. Distribute blank paper and pencils or pens. Ask each participant to rank their small group's list of characteristics from 1 to *n* (where 1 = most important and *n* = least important).
5. Have each group total its rankings for each characteristic. The characteristic with the lowest sum is most important; the one with the highest, the least important.
6. Ask each group to identify its top six characteristics.
7. In the large group, have each group share its top six characteristics. As each group reports its findings, create a master list using the overhead projector. Combine those characteristics that are similar.
8. Repeat Steps 4 and 5, using the master list, with the whole group.

Time Required: 40 minutes

ACTIVITY 2-6

TEACHERS' NEEDS

Purpose(s): To identify the similarities and differences between the needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers

Materials: Newsprint, easels, markers, enough copies of the handout "Teachers' Needs" and of the following articles for each participant:

> "Induction of Experienced Teachers into a New School Site" by Gary N. Hartzell. Fall 1990. In *Journal of Staff Development* 11 (4): 28-31.
>
> "Characteristics of Beginning Teachers in an Induction Context" by Sandra J. Odell. In *Teacher Induction* edited by Judy Reinhartz. (Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1989), pp. 42-50.
>
> "Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers" by Simon Veenman. Summer 1984. In *Review of Educational Research* 54 (2): 143-178.

Trainer's Notes: This activity consists of two steps:

- identifying the needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers and
- noting the similarities and differences in the needs of beginning teachers and experienced newcomers.

You may choose to distribute the articles and the handout "Teachers' Needs" ahead of time so participants can read their article prior to the activity. Depending on your audience, you may wish to revise the handout "Teachers' Needs" to read "Implications for Your School or School System."

Process/Steps:

1. Follow the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 2-C on page 2-83, having six people per home group rather than four. (Each home group will have two people who have read the same article.)
2. In home groups, ask participants to complete the handout "Teachers' Needs."

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

TEACHERS' NEEDS

Major Themes of Your Article	Implications for Your Relationship with Your New Teacher or Experienced Newcomer

ACTIVITY 2-7

A CLOSER LOOK AT YOUR MENTORING SITE: DRIVING FORCES AND RESTRAINING FORCES

Purpose(s): To have the multiconstituent planning group do a force-field analysis of its mentoring site and begin to develop an action plan

Materials: Newsprint, easels, red and green markers, 3" squares of paper (red and green, at least five or six each per participant), and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is designed as a structured conversation to have members of a multiconstituent planning group assess the context for creating and sustaining a mentoring program.

In Steps 2 and 3, participants should be encouraged to resist the temptation to converse before they have filled out their slips of paper. Sometimes, a perceptive comment will come from only one person, and its inclusion may spark fresh ideas. Conversations in groups of five to eight work best.

In Step 4, if a motivating force and a restraining force are related, they may be placed beside each other. This can help participants discover that there may be options to consider if they look beyond the restraining forces.

Process/Steps:

1. Distribute approximately six red and six green pieces of paper to each participant. Have more available.
2. With one answer per slip of green paper, have each participant respond to the following question: What are the motivating forces that are driving the creation of an effective mentoring program in your site?
3. With one response per slip of red paper, have each participant respond to the next question: What are the restraining forces that are inhibiting the creation of an effective mentoring program in your site?
4. Ask participants to form groups of five to eight around a common area (table or floor) and lay out their slips of red and green paper.
5. Remind participants to listen to their conversations as they begin to share their responses. Additional forces may be added as the conversation continues.
6. Have participants share their slips, beginning with either driving or restraining forces. Ask them to look for those held in common and to create a stack when commonalities emerge.
7. Continue the process until all red and green slips have been shared. Piles of red and green slips will result. Single slips are acceptable.
8. Ask the group to decide on a label for each pile. Have each group list its collection of driving and restraining forces, side by side, on newsprint in matching red and green markers.

9. Have groups share their lists with the larger group.
10. Encourage a whole-group conversation about the implications of driving and restraining forces. How can we address the inhibitors? How can we build upon the motivators?
11. List ideas for action on newsprint for future reference.

Time Required: 60 minutes

ACTIVITY 2-8

DEVELOPING AN ACTION PLAN FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A MENTORING PROGRAM

Purpose(s):	To develop a specific plan for the implementation of a mentoring program
Materials:	Enough copies of the handouts "Checklist for Developing a Mentoring Implementation Plan," "Mentoring Implementation Plan," and Appendix 2-E on page 2-89 for each small group; blank paper; and pencils or pens
Trainer's Notes:	The outcome of this activity should be a specific plan identifying objectives of a mentoring program and the activities, time lines, and resources needed to develop and implement it. Refer to Appendix 2-E for suggested components in the development of a mentoring program. Written plans are important for success. They serve as a reminder of what needs to be done, and are imperative if more than one person is involved. In addition, the identification of all of the steps involved in the development and implementation of mentoring programs will alert planners to "pitfalls" early in the process. Due to the complex nature of written plan development, you may suggest that a subcommittee create a draft for the entire group to edit.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form groups of four or five. If participants come from several schools or districts, it would be most beneficial to have the small groups made up of participants from one school or district.
2. Ask each group to complete the handout "Checklist for Developing a Mentoring Implementation Plan," noting actions that have been taken and those that should be built into an action plan.
3. Have each group develop a list of sequenced action steps needed to carry out the plan. Use the "Mentoring Implementation Plan" handout as a sample format. Remind participants that this is the beginning of an ongoing process.

Time Required: Several sessions of up to 120 minutes each

Source: Arbuckle and Murray, Op. Cit., 2-38: 6-57 through 6-61.

CHECKLIST FOR DEVELOPING A MENTORING IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

(Check all that have been accomplished.)

I. ☐ Decide on desired outcomes of the mentoring program.

II. ☐ Form a multiconstituent planning group.

- ☐ a. Inform school or district community, including parents, of planned implementation.
- ☐ b. Identify constituencies to be represented on the planning group.
- ☐ c. Invite or elect persons to act as representatives for the multiconstituent planning group.
- ☐ d. Convene multiconstituent planning group.

III. ☐ Develop a knowledge base for designing the mentoring program.

- ☐ a. Select potential sources for constructing the knowledge base.
    - ☐ 1. Current literature
    - ☐ 2. Current mentoring programs: local, state, regional, or national
    - ☐ 3. Persons with knowledge and experience in mentoring: mentors, teachers who have been mentored, administrators, or faculty from teacher-preparation programs
    - ☐ 4. Independent consultants
- ☐ b. Assign persons to construct or compile the knowledge base from the sources listed above in IIIa.
- ☐ c. Identify "gaps" in the knowledge base available to the planning group.
- ☐ d. Identify existing state and/or local mandates impacting on the development and implementation of the mentoring program.

IV. ☐ Design a mentoring program.

- ☐ a. Using your knowledge base and desired outcomes, select the components to be included in the mentoring program. Keep in mind such issues as:
  - ☐ 1. Selection of mentors
  - ☐ 2. Coordination of the program (who and how)
  - ☐ 3. Compensation for mentors (i.e., stipend, release time from instructional duties, release from noninstructional duties)
  - ☐ 4. Provision of time for beginning teachers to participate in the mentoring program
  - ☐ 5. Training for mentors
  - ☐ 6. Structuring of participants' time
  - ☐ 7. Role of other school community members in the program (principals, department chairpersons, other faculty, substitute teachers)
  - ☐ 8. Nature of the mentoring relationship (confidential or evaluative)
  - ☐ 9. Possible networking among participants in the school, district, and beyond the district to create support and allow for economy in training costs
  - ☐ 10. Degree of flexibility for participants to set the direction of their activities in the program
- ☐ b. Identify possible constraints on the implementation of the mentoring program (mandates; district or school schedules; teacher contracts; lack of awareness and understanding about mentoring by other teachers, administrators, parents; reluctance to "suspend disbelief"; reluctance to "try on" new roles).

  Consider means to address constraints. For example, if there is a lack of awareness and understanding regarding mentoring, have a focus group discuss mentoring for all teachers and administrators.
- ☐ c. Match available resources (time, funds, materials) with tasks to be done and select the most appropriate.

  Note "gaps" in resources, set priorities, and consider creative means for "closing the gap."

- ☐ d. Generate a list of possible models of mentoring, including the most important components as identified by the multiconstituent planning group.

  Consider each model as an appropriate match to your local school or district community, available resources, district or school philosophy, and teacher-preparation mandates.

- ☐ e. Select by consensus the mentoring program model to be implemented.

V. ☐ Inform the greater school/district community of the proposed model, taking care that the objectives and desired outcomes of the mentoring program as well as the roles of various constituents are clear to all.

- ☐ a. Present a proposed time line.
- ☐ b. Allow sufficient time to conduct awareness sessions on the mentoring program.
- ☐ c. Consider feedback from the greater school/district community.
- ☐ d. Make adjustments to the program format.
- ☐ e. Design specific program activities.

VI. ☐ Using the constructed knowledge base and previously determined desired outcomes, identify different models for evaluating the mentoring program, including the various components of the model as well as the impact of the program on participants.

- ☐ a. For each component, are there indicators of effectiveness identified (for example, 90 percent of teachers involved in the program are satisfied with the amount of time available to them to participate)?
- ☐ b. For each desired outcome of participation in the program, are there indicators of impact (for example, new teachers report a greater degree of satisfaction/confidence in their classroom management skills than a comparison group of new teachers, new teachers reflect upon their teaching practice and act upon those reflections to enhance their students' learning)?
- ☐ c. Consider how documentation of the program will be maintained.
- ☐ d. Consider the most appropriate means of conducting the mentoring program evaluation, i.e., through an outside evaluator or using "in-house" resources. This decision again will require a match, or perhaps a compromise, of resources with desired outcomes.

VII. ☐ Outline a specific implementation plan (who, what, where, when).

- ☐ a. Consider documentation of program activities.
- ☐ b. Include a contingency plan.

VIII. ☐ Implement the mentoring program.

- ☐ a. Throughout program implementation, document what works and what does not.
- ☐ b. Modify the program as appropriate.

IX. ☐ Consider the long-range impact of the program, for example, begin tracking retention rates of new teachers who are mentored (as one indicator of impact). Compare these data with the retention rates of new teachers prior to implementation of the program. Or, survey "veteran" teachers' professional satisfaction as a baseline at the start of the program. Track new teachers who are mentored, following up on their professional satisfaction after five years of teaching. Compare these data with the data collected at the start of the program on experienced teachers in the district with comparable years of experience.

MENTORING IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Multiconstituent Planning Group Members:

Objectives:

Objectives	Activities/Steps to Be Taken	Resources Needed	Dates of Accomplishment	Cost	Methods to Measure Progress/Effectiveness	Indicators of Accomplishment/ Effectiveness	Documentation	Person Responsible

Source: Arbuckle and Murray, Op. Cit., 2-38: 6-57 through 6-61.

ACTIVITY 2-9

SAY WHEN: THE MENTOR' S GIFT OF TIME

Purpose(s): To generate a list of options to provide time for mentors to work with new teachers

Materials: Newsprint, easels, and markers

Trainer's Notes: As indicated in this chapter, time for mentors and their new teachers to meet is critical for the success of a mentoring program. There may be many times when mentors and new teachers can meet. This activity is designed for mentors themselves or for planners of a mentoring program to identify all of the possible options. If participants come from several schools or districts, it might be most beneficial to have the small groups made up of participants from one school or district.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants form small groups of four or five, then have them brainstorm a list of options for finding time to enable mentors and new teachers to observe each other's teaching, conduct pre- and post-observation conferences, and discuss teaching and learning.
2. Have participants go back and list the advantages and disadvantages of each option.
3. Select three to five options that the group agrees would work best in its setting. Where participants from different schools and districts are together, allow for different opinions.
4. Ask each small group to identify the steps needed to achieve its preferred options. Have them designate a person responsible for making that option a reality, for example, one participant or a team could meet with the principal to schedule common planning times for mentors and new teachers.
5. Ask groups to share their preferred options and the steps needed to achieve them with the whole group.

Time Required: 60 minutes

RESOURCES ON DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM – Selected Print Resources

DeBolt, Gary. 1991. "Mentoring: Studies of Effective Programs in Education." Paper presented at the Diversity in Mentoring Conference, Chicago. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 346 166).

> This paper compares five school-based collaborative models on the use of mentors as part of induction programs to support new teachers. The goals, preparation of, and support to mentors, and the strengths and benefits of each program are compared.

Garmston, Sue and Bartell, Carol, eds. 1991. *New Teacher Success. You Can Make a Difference.* Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education and Commission on Teacher Credentialing with the California New Teacher Project.

> Although geared to the California New Teacher Project, pages 13-64 offer the most comprehensive discussion of the roles of district personnel, site administrators, support teachers (mentors), and college and university faculty found in the current literature. Sections on each role group address what that role group gains from supporting new teachers, what it can do to support new teachers, what it needs to know to accomplish the task, and what it can do to overcome obstacles to new teacher support.

Newcombe, Ellen. 1988. *Mentoring Programs for New Teachers*. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

> Although all of this publication is worth reading, the section on a mentoring program discusses the roles, activities, and responsibilities of state departments of education, school districts, schools, etc., in the development, implementation, and maintenance of mentoring programs.

Odell, Sandra J. 1989a. "Developing Support Programs for Beginning Teachers." In *Assisting the Beginning Teacher*. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

> This chapter provides an excellent resource to developers of mentoring programs. It discusses five aspects that need to be addressed in developing a mentoring program: establishing goals; determining needs of beginning teachers; selecting, training, and assigning responsibilities to program's support personnel; and evaluating the program.

Odell, Sandra J.; Loughlin, Catherine E.; and Ferraro, Douglas P. Winter 1987. "Functional Approach to Identification of New Teacher Needs in an Induction Context." *Action in Teacher Education* 8 (4): 51-57.

> This article summarizes research on the changing needs of 18 new elementary school teachers during the first year of their induction program. Needs were identified by mentor teachers who recorded the specific induction assistance they offered to new teachers.

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM – Selected Print Resources (continued)

Ohio Department of Education. 1990. *Assisting the Entry-Year Teacher: A Leadership Resource.* Columbus, OH: Ohio Department of Education.

> Chapter 14, "Guidelines for Developing an Entry-Year Program," provides an outline with specific questions to assist a multiconstituent planning team to design and evaluate a written plan for a mentoring program (see Figure 14-2).

Oregon Department of Education. 1990. *Promoting Collaboration and Collegiality: A Handbook for Mentors in the Oregon Beginning Teacher Support Program.* Salem, OR: Oregon Department of Education.

> This handbook, developed by professionals involved in Oregon's Beginning Teacher Support Program, presents relevant information and practical suggestions that are useful to mentors. Six sections address beginning teaching, the mentor role, orientation services, instructional assistance, collegial support, and training activities.

Paine, Lynn Webster. Fall 1990. "The Teacher as Virtuoso: A Chinese Model for Teaching." *Teachers College Record* 92 (1): 49-81.

> This article describes the results of the author's two years of fieldwork in Chinese classrooms. Its importance is not on the mastery of technical knowledge by teachers in preparatory institutions, but on the structure of its preparation of teachers and the organization of teachers' work. This structure fosters collegial relations that offer personal and professional support to teachers carrying out complex and demanding jobs.

Veenman, Simon. Summer 1984. "Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers." *Review of Educational Research* 54 (2): 143-178.

> This article offers the most comprehensive, academic review of the research on the needs of beginning teachers.

Zimpher, Nancy L. and Rieger, Susan R. Summer 1988. "Mentoring Teachers: What Are the Issues?" *Theory Into Practice* 27 (3): 175-182.

> The authors offer a thorough review of the literature pertaining to the various roles of mentors, the mentoring process (from an informal buddy function to a more formal facilitation of new teachers' professional development), conditions necessary for new teachers and mentors to work productively in a school setting, criteria for the identification of mentors, and the matching of new teachers and mentors.

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM – Other Resources

Ackley, Blaine and Gall, Meredith D. 1992. "Skills, Strategies, and Outcomes of Successful Mentor Teachers." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 346 046).

Arbuckle, Margaret A. and Murray, Lynn B. 1989. *Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide.* Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services.

Brooks, Douglas M., ed. 1987. *Teacher Induction: A New Beginning.* Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM – Other Resources (continued)

Carr, Judy and Harris, Douglas. 1993. *Getting It Together: A Process Workout for K-12 Curriculum Development, Implementation, and Assessment.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

DeBolt, Gary P., ed. 1992. *Teacher Induction and Mentoring: School-Based Collaborative Programs.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Feiman-Nemser, Sharon. 1992. *Mentoring in Context: A Comparison of Two U.S. Programs for Beginning Teachers.* East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

Fuller, Frances F. 1969. "Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization." *American Educational Research Journal* 6 (2): 207-226.

Gray, William A. and Gray, Marilynne M. November 1985. "Synthesis of Research on Mentoring Beginning Teachers." *Educational Leadership* 43 (3): 37-43.

Greece Central School. 1990. *Mentoring Project Handbook 1990-91.* Rochester, NY: Greece Central School District.

Hadaway, Nancy and Reinhartz, Judy. Winter 1992-93. "Circumventing the Funding Issues in Induction." *Action in Teacher Education* 14 (4): 24-29.

Heller, Mel P. and Sindelar, Nancy W. 1991. *Developing an Effective Teacher Mentor Program.* Fastback 319. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappan Educational Foundation.

Henry, Marvin A. Fall 1986. "Strengths and Needs of First-Year Teachers." *Teacher Educator* 22 (2): 10-18.

Huling-Austin, Leslie. 1990. "Teacher Induction Programs and Internships." In *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*, edited by W. Robert Houston. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Huling-Austin, Leslie; Barnes, Susan; and Smith, J. 1985. "A Research-Based Development Program for Beginning Teachers." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Kilgore, Karen; Ross, Dorene; and Zbikowski, John. January-February 1990. "Understanding the Teaching Perspectives of First-Year Teachers." *Journal of Teacher Education* 41 (1): 28-38.

Kling, Ruth E. and Brookhart, Donna A. 1991. "Mentoring: A Review of Related Literature." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 346 095).

Klug, Beverly J. and Salzman, Stephanie A. 1991. "Formal Induction vs. Informal Mentoring: Comparative Effects and Outcomes." *Teaching and Teacher Education* 7 (3): 241-251.

Louis Harris and Associates, Inc. 1992. *The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher, 1992. The Second Year: New Teachers' Expectations and Ideals.* New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

Mager, Gerald M. with Carol Corwin. 1988. *A Report to the State Education Department on the New York State Mentor Teacher-Internship Program for 1987-1988: The Mentor-Intern Relationship.* Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University, Division for the Study of Teaching, School of Education.

DEVELOPING A MENTOR PROGRAM – Other Resources (continued)

Mager, Gerald M. 1990. *A Follow-up on the Experiences of Intern Teachers: A Report to the State Education Department on the New York State Mentor Teacher-Internship Program for 1986-1987 and 1987-1988*. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University School of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 328 528).

Mahoney, Pat and Iritz, Mary Anne. 1990. *1990-91 Mentor/Intern Handbook, Franklin-St. Lawrence Consortium*. Saranac Lake, NY: Franklin-St. Lawrence Consortium.

Maryland State Department of Education, Staff Development Branch, and Research for Better Schools. 1987. *Perspectives on Teacher Induction: A Review of the Literature and Promising Program Models*. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

Massachusetts Teachers Association and Massachusetts Field Center. 1990. *The First Year*. Boston: Massachusetts Teachers Association and Massachusetts Field Center.

Moffett, Cerylle and Warger, Cynthia L. 1988. *Human Resource Development Program Handbook*. Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Odell, Sandra J. January-February 1986. "Induction Support of New Teachers: A Functional Approach." *Journal of Teacher Education* 37 (1): 26-29.

_________. 1987. "Teacher Induction: Rationale and Issues." In *Teacher Induction: A New Beginning*, edited by Douglas M. Brooks. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

_________. 1989b. "Characteristics of Beginning Teachers in an Induction Context." In *Teacher Induction*, edited by Judy Reinhartz. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

_________. 1990a. *Mentor Teacher Programs*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

_________. 1990b. "Support for New Teachers." In *Mentoring: Developing Successful New Teachers*, edited by Theresa M. Bey and C. Thomas Holmes. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

Parkay, Forrest W. Summer 1988. "Reflections of a Protégé." *Theory Into Practice* 27 (3): 195-200.

Reiman, Alan J. and Edelfelt, Roy A. 1991. *The Opinions of Mentors and Beginning Teachers. What Do They Say About Induction*? Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State University, Department of Curriculum and Instruction. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 329 519).

Ruskus, Joan. December 1989. "Results of Program Evaluations Are Released." *Update*. Hartford, CT: Connecticut State Department of Education.

Ryan, Kevin; Newman, Katherine K.; Mager, Gerald; Applegate, Jane; Lasley, Thomas; Flora, Randall; and Johnston, John M. 1980. *Biting the Apple: Accounts of First-Year Teachers*. New York: Longman.

Schon, Donald A. 1990. *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

DEVELOPING A MENTOR PROGRAM – Other Resources (continued)

Stupiansky, Nicholas G. and Wolfe, Michael P. Winter 1991. "A Consortium Model for Rural-Based Mentor-Intern Programs: A School-College Partnership That Works." *Journal of Rural and Small Schools* 4 (3): 22-31.

Wagner, Laura; Ward, Beatrice; and Dianda, Marcella. 1990. "Policy Research in Teacher Education and Staff Development: Dilemmas and Challenges." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston.

Walsh, Jackie. 1989. *Targets for Trainers: Taking Aim Toward More Productive Training.* Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education.

Ward, Beatrice A. 1986. "State and District Structures to Support Initial Year of Teaching Programs." In *The First Years of Teaching: Background Papers and a Proposal*, edited by Gary A. Griffin and Suzanne Millies. Chicago: University of Illinois/Illinois State Board of Education.

Wildman, Terry M.; Niles, Jerome A.; Magliaro, Susan G.; and McLaughlin, Ruth Anne. March 1989. "Teaching and Learning to Teach: The Two Roles of Beginning Teachers." *The Elementary School Journal* 89 (4): 471-493.

DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM – Audiovisual Resources

Teitel, Lee. 1992. *Starting and Sustaining a Mentor Teacher Program.* Boston: Massachusetts Field Center for Teaching and Learning.

> This handbook and accompanying videotape are especially designed for educators who are seeking assistance in the initiation and maintenance of mentoring programs in their school systems. Both the handbook and videotape feature a variety of perspectives on mentoring programs in Massachusetts as well as offer practical advice on the steps necessary to set up such programs.
>
> Available from: Massachusetts Foundation for Teaching and Learning
> 55 Chapel Street
> Newton, MA 02160

APPENDICES

2-A How to Make an Activity Your Own: A Working Checklist 2-75

2-B Guide to Facilitation 2-77

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2-D The Nominal Group Process 2-87

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APPENDIX 2-A

HOW TO MAKE AN ACTIVITY YOUR OWN: A WORKING CHECKLIST

In order to make the best use of an activity, you need to "make it your own," detailing how it will actually be carried out. An activity may also have to be adapted to particular training situations and to participants' needs. This checklist provides a set of simple steps for proceeding.

1. Read through the activity to be sure you understand how it works.
2. Consider the audience with whom you will be using the activity. What are its probable needs?
3. Decide upon what you are trying to accomplish (your main goals or purposes) with the activity.
4. *Write down* your goals. If working with others, use newsprint or other large-display formats to build the design and guide your work as you go.
5. Begin walking through the steps in the activity. For each step, ask the four questions below. As you proceed, write down what you decide.
    - Shall I keep this or drop it?
    - Shall I revise this? How?
    - Should steps be in a different sequence (for example, conceptual material early rather than late)?
    - Are there "option points" at which I might do something differently depending on how a step goes?
6. Set the amount of time each step will take.
7. REVIEW: Walk through the flow of revised steps. Think of how a participant will feel and react. Does the flow work well or does it need adjustment?
8. Decide who will run each step.
9. Decide what preparation is needed (conceptual inputs, directions for steps, handouts, overheads, newsprint, room setup, etc.) and who will do it.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual* by Ellen R. Saxl with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. (c) 1989, I-18.

APPENDIX 2-B

GUIDE TO FACILITATION

Facilitation is highly complex and particularly significant in the teaching/learning process. When assuming the role of facilitator, there are particular structures, strategies, and dispositions that can contribute to your success. This guide to facilitation will highlight several aspects to consider as you prepare, execute, and evaluate your sessions.

Preparing Your Session

1. Be prepared and know your audience. Ask planners to respond to the statement "This session we are preparing will be valuable if . . . ." By probing planners in this way, you are better able to prepare for what they are intending as learner outcomes for the participants.

2. Establish "ground rules" for group behavior:

   - suspend judgment;
   - think together; and
   - share air time.

3. Review particular instructions necessary for participants to fully understand what is expected.

4. Know your content and be clear about your process.

5. Identify the nature of the facilitator role for the activity you are doing. Some helpful questions to ask are:

   - Is this a brainstorming activity in which it is more important for you to manage the group than to bring your content knowledge?
   - Is this an activity in which your content knowledge is essential in guiding discussion?

6. Consider having advanced organizers, for example, an agenda for the day, process steps, an overview of the activities of the day, and review materials packet to be used.

7. Have materials prepared in advance -- use large font for overheads, preferably six to eight lines of text per overhead.

8. Prepare name tags or ask participants to fill out their own. Ask that first names be printed legibly and in large print.

Qualities of Effective Facilitation

READING THE GROUP accurately is a skill that can significantly enhance the rapport between you and your participants. Anticipating basic needs is a first step in this process. For example, plan for breaks if your session is lengthy and provide food, comfortable chairs, adequate lighting, and a comfortable room temperature. Be prepared to address a variety of learning styles. Allow participants adequate wait time. It will often take participants five seconds or more to process the question, or synthesize the ideas on the table, before they are ready to respond. This extra

gift of "thinking time" is an effective strategy in soliciting optimal group involvement. Be familiar with group dynamics. For example, the four stages of group development are forming, norming, storming, and performing. Be aware of "group think," an excessive tendency to maintain "group cohesiveness" at the cost of critical thinking and risk taking. Remember the significance of silence as a voice of the group. In cases in which silence is spoken loudly, you may want to ask the question, "Does anyone have any thought, question, or concern they would like to put on the table at this point?"

CLARIFYING what someone has said is helpful to ensure common understanding and decrease the possibility of unnecessary conflict. Paraphrasing or checking for accuracy can help participants clarify their intentions and let them know that you hear them accurately.

PROBING for specificity is a skill that facilitators can employ to help move individuals, or groups, from a position of "feeling stuck" to one of new understanding or enlightenment. By asking certain kinds of questions, a facilitator can coach a reflective process that often invites discovery and clarity. Examples of this type of question would include:

- What would that look like?
- How is what you've just said different from this other idea?
- Could you expand that further?

DEPERSONALIZING CONFLICT is a requirement of impartial facilitation. When working with diverse groups, the personality, tone, or learning style needs of participants may cloud your perceptions and attitudes as the facilitator. It is essential that you focus on the problem, not the person, when responding to difficult issues regarding facilitating groups. At the same time, it is often necessary to give difficult feedback. For instance, if group behaviors like blocking, sabotaging, excessive humor, or monopolizing are occurring, you may need to step into the role of process observer and provide the group with specific data that identifies the unproductive behavior. If you are "stepping out" of your facilitator role for any reason, it is important to announce what it is you are doing and why, i.e., you may shift to a process observer role to provide the group with needed feedback. In any case, always attempt to remove your own ego from the conflict. As facilitator, you need to remain impartial in resolving controversy. Chapter 3 discusses conflict resolution in greater detail and recommends several resources on the topic.

BRACKETING is a technique that allows questions, comments, and ideas to be validated, while at the same time, allows the group to move forward. For example, if an issue is raised that is important to the group, yet unrelated to their present task, you could record the issue or topic on newsprint, place it within brackets [ ], and indicate that this is an important issue the group may have to return to at a later time. It is also important to include bracketed information in the minutes. This technique provides you with one way to keep a group on task, while inviting a disposition for critical inquiry.

VALUING each person's contributions will enhance group development by giving personal meaning to each member's participation. There are several ways you may do this, for example:

- Give a person positive feedback for a comment, for example, "That's a really good suggestion."
- Bring back into the conversation a comment made previously that would otherwise be overlooked. It is also helpful if, in doing so, you are able to make connections to the current conversation.

- Provide a visual focus point for the meeting's progress. Newsprint is a wonderful facilitation tool in this regard. Not only will it allow participants to see what they've talked about, but it is also a good way to review decisions that have already been made.
- Check with participants to make sure that what you record on newsprint accurately reflects what they said. Try to use the exact language or phrases used by participants as much as possible.

Tools of Facilitation

It is a good idea to have a "kit of tools" prepared and take them with you whenever you facilitate. Regardless of what others have agreed to prepare for you, Murphy's Law often rings true when it comes to having exactly what you need as you begin to facilitate your session. Helpful tools to include in your facilitator kit are:

A variety of colored markers
Overhead pens
Masking tape
Timer (for example, stopwatch)
Pushpins
Paper clips
Name tags
Rubber bands
Post-it notes
Blank overheads
Business cards
Copies of your favorite anecdotes, stories, and jokes

Optional tools:

Portable easel
Audiotape recorder

A Framework for Effective Meetings

- Have an agenda or "build one" at the beginning of the session.
- Record highlights, decisions, "report out" information, and bracketed information on newsprint and use this information to create a set of minutes of the session.
- Provide a copy of the minutes to each participant.
- Be prepared to change your facilitator role to one of process observer if feedback is needed regarding group behavior.
- Provide participants with an opportunity to give you feedback about their experience during the session.

Evaluating Your Session

There are several methods for assessing how effective, meaningful, and valuable your session was for participants. Chapter 4 provides a more detailed review of methodologies; however, the following examples may also be helpful in selecting a method of assessment that is appropriate for your needs.

Likert-Type Scale

This method of assessment provides a numerical evaluation of your session. Typically you would ask participants to rate your session around several areas on a scale of one to five. The following provides an example:

Today's session was:

Not Productive **Very Productive**

1 2 3 4 5

Not Informative **Very Informative**

1 2 3 4 5

Not Well Organized **Very Organized**

1 2 3 4 5

Open-Ended Assessment

This method of assessment provides for a more continual assessment strategy. It is especially useful if you are working with a particular group over time, since the responses can help inform what a particular group of learners will need next and will provide you with feedback about whether or not their expectations were met. One method is to use an 8.5" x 11" sheet of paper and label the top of each of four quadrants with the following open-ended statements:

I came expecting . . . **I got . . .**

I value . . . **Next I need . . .**

Journal Entries

Once again, if you are working with a group over time, excerpts from individual journal entries which speak to individual appraisal around the use of an innovation, perceptions, or attitudes can be extremely helpful in accurately identifying the concerns of a given group of learners. In doing so, you are better able to prepare for any subsequent sessions. If you are considering using this method, make it clear to participants that this will occur and agree ahead of time how the journals will be used (or not used) and who will be reading them. Trust can prove to be a major issue in the effective use of this method.

Assessment and Celebration

As a culminating activity, especially after working with a particular group over several sessions, a large-group "free expression" can provide feedback while also creating a community celebration. First, roll out a long strip of paper from a newsprint roll (you can usually get these from local newspapers). The length of the sheet should allow for adequate space for all participants to express themselves. Scatter assorted colored markers along the sheet on the floor. Ask participants to respond to the question, "How meaningful/valuable has this experience been for me?" Participants may choose to express themselves in writing or with some other creative art form. After they have completed the task, display the length of newsprint in a common area, i.e., a school or classroom, as it offers a reminder of the celebration.

Quick Feedback

Many activities require participants to read new materials, participate in a new process, or experience a different workshop structure. If you find it necessary, or interesting, to gain quick feedback, there are two methods that can provide you with quick access to participant perceptions. Immediately following the activity in question, ask participants to give you a thumbs-up if they thought the activity was very good, interesting, or helpful; a thumbs-down if it was not good, not interesting, or not helpful; and a thumbs-parallel if they were middle of the road about the activity. When doing a jigsaw activity in which participants are reading a variety of articles and readings, this method can provide you with helpful feedback about the relevance of the material selected. A second method is to ask participants to record on 3" x 5" cards one recommendation and one commendation. This method works best if you use one color card for recommendations and another color for commendations.

Parting Thoughts

- Be prepared.
- Know your audience.
- Demonstrate a sense of humor -- have fun.
- Use appropriate tone of voice and body language. Fifty-five percent of your message depends on body language, thirty-eight percent on tone of voice, and seven percent on the words you choose.
- Celebrate the "ah-has."
- Embrace participants' ideas and interests.
- Remember the ground rules and be ready to shift into other roles as needed by the group.

APPENDIX 2-C

GENERIC JIGSAW EXERCISE

Purpose(s): To acquaint participants with the jigsaw activity

Materials: Articles, books, etc. -- varied according to content of training topic, overhead entitled "Jigsaw Exercise," overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easels, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity provides a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about the topic that has been selected. It extends knowledge and stimulates good collegial thinking and discussion. This experiential learning activity draws on the knowledge participants bring to the activity, promotes shared responsibility for learning, provides new feelings of expertise, and shifts the status of expert from trainer to learner.

A range of readings should be selected, the criteria of which should include:

- diversity of findings and points of view;
- understandable language;
- diversity of sources (i.e., journals) and researchers; and
- similarity in length.

Diversity is particularly important. Collectively, the articles should heighten participants' understanding of the scope of the topic and expand their vision of what it can and should be.

If at all possible, the articles should be assigned and distributed in advance to allow for more thoughtful reading. Group time should then be shortened and devoted to discussion with peer "experts."

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of the activity. Explain what a jigsaw is. The jigsaw activity is a cooperative-learning strategy that allows participants to become experts in a particular aspect of the topic and then to teach that aspect to others in the group. The advantage of using the jigsaw is that it provides a good way for participants to learn new content and to reinforce that learning by teaching the content to others.

Sources: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-7 to 2-10.

Adapted with permission of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development from *Human Resource Development Program Handbook: A Practical Guide for Staff Developers* by Cerylle A. Moffett and Cynthia L. Warger. (c) 1988.

Have participants divide into home groups. In a common variation of the activity, you will assign each member of the home group a different article on a common topic. Then, have the home groups split into new groups -- expert groups consisting of all those who were assigned a common article. In the expert groups, have members discuss what they've read, highlight major points, cite examples, and discuss how they will teach the material to their home group. After a designated period of time, have the home group reconvene, with each member teaching the rest of the group what he or she has learned.

The overhead "Jigsaw Exercise" illustrates the structure and sequence of the jigsaw activity. In this example, there are four home groups of four members each. Assign each group member a number from one to four. Have all the "ones" form a new expert group, all the "twos" do the same, and so on. Have the expert groups meet and discuss the reading. Then, have them return to their original home group to share their learnings and discuss implications for their work.

2. Have participants form home groups of four (see overhead).

3. Assign a different article to each person in a group or have them self-select.

4. Have participants read independently.

5. Then, have them form homogeneous or expert groups of readers for each article. Discuss and identify:

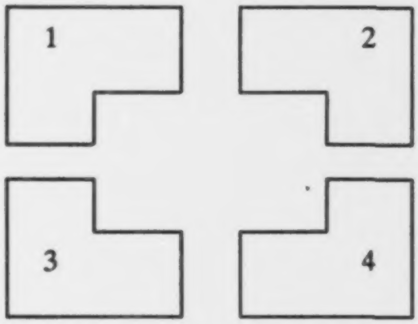
   - major ideas the author(s) presents;
   - the most significant points; and
   - experiences which support or refute the points presented in the article.

   Have participants develop a one-page "crib sheet" (a summary or visual of key points) to use when they "teach" their peers in their home groups.

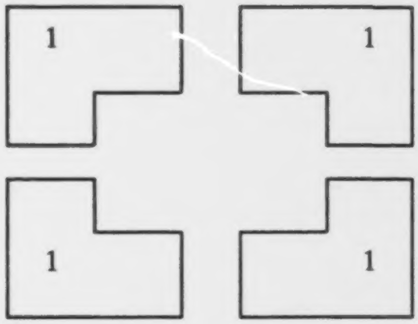
6. Have them return to home groups. Ask experts to teach their peers about their article. Then, have them discuss similarities and dissimilarities.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

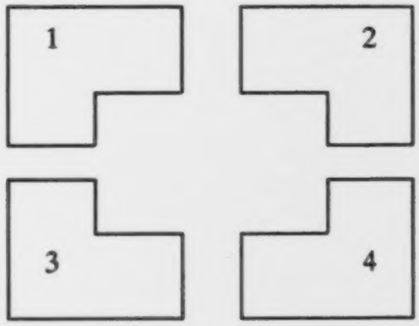
JIGSAW EXERCISE



1. HOME GROUP



2. EXPERT GROUP



3. HOME GROUP

Sources: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-7 to 2-10.

Adapted with permission of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development from *Human Resource Development Program Handbook: A Practical Guide for Staff Developers* by Cerylle A. Moffett and Cynthia L. Warger. (c) 1988.

APPENDIX 2-D

THE NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

The nominal group process is a method for structuring groups whereby individual judgments are pooled and used when there is uncertainty or disagreement about the nature of the problem and possible solutions. The process is helpful in identifying problems, exploring solutions, and establishing priorities. It works best with groups of five to nine participants. Larger groups can be handled by making minor changes in procedure, particularly in Step 2, but any group larger than 12 should be subdivided.

Nominal Group Process Procedures

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing.

Read the focus question aloud and ask participants to list their responses in phrases or brief sentences. Request that they work silently and independently. Allow four to eight minutes.

Step 2: Round-robin recording of ideas.

Go around the table and get one idea from each participant. Write the ideas on newsprint. As each sheet is finished, tape it on the wall so that the entire list is visible. Number each item. Leave space to the left of each number to record votes at a later time. Encourage hitchhiking on other ideas. Discourage discussion, elaboration, or justification.

Step 3: Serial discussion of the list of ideas.

Clarification: Explain that the purpose of this step is clarification. Read item 1 aloud and invite clarifying comments. Then, read item 2 and continue discussing each item in turn until the list is covered. Arguments are unnecessary because each participant will have a chance to vote independently in Step 4. As soon as the logic and meaning of the items are clear, cut off discussion.

Categorization: Once each item has been discussed, duplicate items should be identified and combined. This may necessitate rewriting some of the items before the voting step. However, resist the temptation to combine *many* items into broader categories. Some participants may seek to achieve consensus by this means and the precision of the original items may be lost, or the combined item will become so abstract and all-inclusive that the group is able to avoid the difficult choices inherent in prioritizing.

Source: Adapted with permission of Sage Publications from *Group Techniques for Idea Building* by Carl M. Moore. (c) 1987.

Adapted with permission from The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-38.

Step 4: Voting.

Have each participant select five items that are most important to him or her, write them down, and then rank order them (1=*least* important; 5=*most* important). Record the priority numbers on newsprint in front of the group. The numbers are then added, resulting in a total for each item. Items can then be prioritized -- those items with the highest numbers are considered the highest priority. Have the group discuss the voting patterns. If desired, the items can be further clarified and a second vote taken.

APPENDIX 2-E

SUGGESTED COMPONENTS OF A WRITTEN PLAN FOR A MENTORING PROGRAM

Definitions

- Are critical terms used in the plan for a mentoring program clearly defined?
- Is the use of terms throughout the plan for the mentoring program consistent with their definitions?

Purpose

- Is there a statement of purpose?
- Is the purpose compatible with state and local regulations, the school board's or school committee's general philosophy of education, and other purposes of the school district's professional development program?

Rationale or Philosophy

- Are fundamental reasons for the existence of the mentoring program stated?
- Does the rationale include statements of belief concerning areas relative to mentoring?
    - Does each statement of belief have an empirical or a rational basis?
    - Are statements of belief compatible with each other?
- Does the rationale include specific implications of stated beliefs for mentoring programs?
    - Do the specific implications flow logically from the general beliefs?
    - Are the implications compatible with each other?
- Is the rationale compatible with state and local regulations, the school board's or school committee's general philosophy of education, the school board's or school committee's philosophy of professional development, the district's professional development plan, and the mentoring program's purpose?

Goals and Objectives

- Are broad program goals written?
- Are program goals appropriately related to stated needs? If the goals are met, will the needs be met?
- Are specific objectives written relative to each goal?
    - Are objectives appropriately related to the goals under which they are categorized? If the objectives are met, will the goal be met?
    - Are objectives stated in observable, measurable terms?

Source: Adapted with permission of the Ohio Department of Education from *Assisting the Entry-Year Teacher: A Leadership Resource*. (c) 1990, 105-110.

- Are goals and objectives compatible with each other, state and local standards, the school board's or school committee's general philosophy of education, the goals and objectives of other components of the school district's professional development program, the mentoring program's purpose, and the rationale for the mentoring program?
- Does the plan include provisions for revising, adding, or deleting program objectives as a result of needs assessments administered to mentors and new teachers after initiation of the mentoring program?
- Does the plan include provisions for building administrators, mentors, and new teachers to set individual objectives?
- Does the plan include a way to communicate with all staff throughout the process of development?

Roles and Responsibilities

- If the mentoring program involves a consortium with a central agency, are the responsibilities of the central agency and the responsibilities of individual school districts clearly defined and differentiated?
- Are program responsibilities for those individuals from the central office, the school, and other organizations clearly defined and differentiated?
- Are the roles and responsibilities of persons involved in the mentoring program clearly defined (for example, program administrators, program developers, program evaluators, mentor trainers, building administrators, instructional supervisors, program consultants, mentors, other faculty and staff, and new teachers)?
- Are provisions made for vertical and lateral communication and for collaboration of organizations and individuals in meeting program responsibilities?

Mentor Selection

- Are eligibility requirements for becoming a mentor stated?
- Are procedures for nominating mentors stated?
- Are criteria for selecting mentors stated?
- Are all elements of the mentor selection component of the plan compatible with the state's and local district's regulations, the mentoring program's purpose, the rationale for the mentoring program, and the mentoring program's goals and objectives?

Mentor Training

- Is an orientation planned for mentors?
  - Are goals and objectives for mentor orientation listed?
  - Is there a tentative schedule of activities for mentor orientation?
  - Does the plan for mentor orientation include making mentors aware of their roles and responsibilities, training activities that they will participate in, support and rewards that the program provides for them, and the school district's procedures for evaluating their performance?

- Is there a plan for preliminary training for new mentors, to be held following mentor orientation and before the initiation of mentoring?
    - Are goals and objectives for preliminary mentor training listed?
    - Is there a schedule of activities for preliminary mentor training?
    - Do goals, objectives, and activities in the preliminary mentor training plan focus on knowledge and skills that will be needed by mentors during the first few weeks of mentoring?
- Is there a plan for long-range mentor training?
    - Are goals and objectives for long-range mentor training listed?
    - Is there a schedule of activities for long-range mentor training?
- Are plans for mentor orientation, preliminary training for new mentors, and long-range mentor training based on a preliminary assessment of mentors' needs?
- Are all elements of the plan for mentor training consistent with state and local district regulations, the mentoring program's purpose, the rationale for the mentoring program, the mentoring program's goals and objectives, and the district's professional development plan?
- Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement each planned mentor-training activity?
- Are the material resources necessary to carry out mentor training identified?

Mentor Support and Rewards

- Is there support for mentors?
    - Are provisions made for regular group meetings that focus on affective support for mentors?
    - Is a support person, or "coach" (for example, a previous mentor, a program coordinator, a staff development coordinator), identified for each mentor?
    - Are mentors provided sufficient time within the instructional day to carry out their mentoring responsibilities?
    - Are provisions made for mentors to receive resources essential for carrying out their mentoring responsibilities?
- Are there rewards for mentors?
    - Are there extrinsic rewards for mentors, such as financial rewards or additional release time?
    - Are there provisions for school district recognition of effective mentors?
    - Are there incentives for mentors to engage in individualized activities to promote their personal and professional development?

- Are all elements of the plan for providing support and rewards for mentors compatible with state and local district regulations, the mentoring program's purpose, the rationale for the mentoring program, the mentoring program's goals and objectives, and the district's professional development plan?
- Are human resources identified to coordinate support and rewards for mentors?
- Are the material resources necessary to provide support and rewards for mentors identified?

Mentor Assignment

- Are there criteria for assigning mentors to new teachers?
    - Are the criteria compatible with the knowledge base on matching mentors with new teachers?
    - Do the criteria reflect practical considerations of program size, types and number of potential mentors, and projected number and assignments of new teachers?
- Is there a description of procedures for assigning mentors to new teachers?
    - Are the procedures compatible with the knowledge base on matching mentors with new teachers?
    - Do the procedures address concerns of those directly affected by mentor assignment (for example, new teachers, mentors, building administrators)?
    - Is the issue of reassigning mentors during the school year addressed? If reassignment is possible, are procedures described for requesting, deciding the appropriateness of, and making new assignments?
- Are criteria and procedures for assigning mentors to classroom teachers compatible with state and local district regulations, the mentoring program's purpose, the rationale for the mentoring program, and the mentoring program's goals and objectives?

Professional Development Activities for New Teachers

- Is there a tentative activity schedule designed to provide initial orientation on the pupils and the community to be served; school policies, procedures, and routines; courses of study, competency-based education programs, and responsibilities for lesson plans; the layout and facilities of the assigned school building(s); the nature of the mentoring program that will be provided; and additional information new teachers may need to be adequately prepared for their specific assignments?
- Are ongoing professional development activities planned?
    - Are activities planned to meet new teachers' professional and affective needs?
    - Is there a balance of group activities, one-to-one mentor-new teacher activities, and self-directed activities?
    - Is there a tentative schedule of activities for the school year?
    - Is there a list of activities that do not need to take place on specific dates, but are to take place periodically throughout the school year?
    - Does the plan contain sufficient flexibility to allow for changes in activities due to changes in program goals and objectives and individual objectives and activities to be set by mentors and new teachers?

- Are planned activities appropriately related to state regulations, the mentoring program's purpose, the rationale for the mentoring program, the goals and objectives of the mentoring program, the district's professional development plan, and the knowledge base on effective professional development activities for new teachers?
- Are human resources provided to coordinate and implement each planned professional development activity?
- Are material resources needed for each planned professional development activity identified?

Specific Needs Assessments and Program Modification

- Mentors
    - Are there provisions described for administering and analyzing an initial, formal needs assessment for mentors prior to the initiation of the mentoring program?
        - Is the needs assessment designed to measure mentors' professional and affective needs?
        - Are widely varying data-collection procedures (for example, surveys, interviews, group discussions) proposed?
    - Are provisions made for ongoing formal or informal mentor needs assessments throughout the year?
    - Are provisions made for modifying mentor training or the mentor support and rewards components of the plan as a result of mentor needs assessments?
- New Teachers
    - Are there provisions for administering and analyzing a formal needs assessment for new teachers at the end of each school year to assist in planning the support provided to new teachers in the following year?
        - Is the needs assessment designed to measure first-year teachers' professional and affective needs?
        - Are widely varying data-collection procedures proposed?
    - Are provisions made for ongoing formal or informal new teacher needs assessments throughout the entry year?
    - Is a process described for making modifications in the mentoring program based on results of new teacher needs assessments?
- Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement mentor and new teacher needs assessments and corresponding modifications in the mentoring program?
- Have the material resources been identified that are necessary to carry out mentor and new teacher needs assessments?

Program Evaluation and Revision

- Are all phases of the program evaluation considered?
    - Is context evaluation considered?
        - Is there a plan for identifying environmental factors that may affect the mentoring program or its outcomes? (Examples of such environmental factors are community conditions, the school district's financial status, staff attitudes, and crisis situations experienced by the school or the school district.) Does the plan include methods for measuring the influence of these factors on the mentoring program and its outcomes?
        - Are there provisions for determining if the program needs assessments correctly identified the needs of mentors and new teachers?
    - Is input evaluation considered?
        - Are there provisions for evaluating the written program plan? (This outline represents a set of guidelines for such an evaluation.)
        - Are there provisions for evaluating the appropriateness and adequacy of human and material resources assigned to the mentoring program?
    - Is process evaluation considered?
        - Are there provisions for determining if the mentoring program is implemented according to the program plan?
        - If any components of the mentoring program are not implemented according to the plan, are there provisions for identifying reasons for the lack of implementation? Are there provisions for identifying effects of the lack of implementation?
    - Is outcome evaluation considered?
        - Is there a plan to measure whether or not program objectives have been met?
        - Is there a plan to measure (positive and negative) unintended program outcomes?
- Are there provisions for analyzing data from each phase of the program evaluation and synthesizing the results of that analysis into a comprehensive evaluation report?
- Are there procedures for revising the mentoring program in response to the program evaluation?
- Are human resources to coordinate and implement program evaluation and revision identified?
- Are the material resources necessary for program evaluation identified?

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Dissemination

- Are there provisions for disseminating information about the mentoring program to appropriate parties?
- Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement dissemination of information?
- Are the material resources necessary to disseminate information identified?

Program Budget

- Has a tentative program budget been created?
- Are spending categories and amounts consistent with resource needs identified in the written plan?

APPENDIX 2-F

DEALING WITH SPECIAL SITUATIONS IN MENTORING PROGRAMS

MENTORING OUT OF SUBJECT AREA OR GRADE LEVEL

Concern	Solution
Lack of familiarity with the curriculum or most appropriate techniques for teaching the new teacher's class(es) exists.	Identify colleagues and/or curriculum specialists in your school or district, resource persons at a local college or university, or colleagues in another district who are more familiar with the subject matter or grade level taught by the new teacher. Then, link the new teacher with one of those individuals in person, by phone, or by means of a computer network so they can share ideas, plan lessons, and hopefully observe each other's teaching. Offer to share in these activities or debrief with the new teacher afterward. Enable new teachers with expertise in the same subject area or grade level to share ideas, plan lessons together, and observe each other's teaching. Offer to share in these activities or debrief with the new teachers afterward.
There are few instructional ideas and materials to share.	When team interaction focuses on curriculum design, meet together in the district's curriculum center, a resource center in a local college or university, or a teachers' center. Then, the team can work together to locate additional teaching material and resources to enrich the new teacher's planned learning activities.
Demonstration lessons in the mentor's classroom seem irrelevant to the new teacher's needs.	In addition to linking the new teacher to teachers in the same subject area or grade level for observation of demonstration lessons, the mentor can offer to team-teach in the new teacher's classroom.
The mismatch in teaching assignments reduces the frequency and quality of team interaction.	If you find that you are not interacting as a team very often, schedule a regular time to meet at least once a month and honor that commitment. If, when you and the new teacher meet, your interaction does not seem very focused or productive, agree on an informal agenda of discussion topics based on the new teacher's needs and concerns. Do not ignore the new teacher's accomplishments as a topic of discussion. If you are not very well versed in the subject matter or grade level taught by the new teacher, you, too, will benefit as he or she recounts the brightest moments in teaching. This topic of discussion also promotes the new teacher's self-esteem and ability to be self-reflecting and self-analyzing.

Source: Oregon Department of Education, Op. Cit., 2-11: 28-32.

MENTORING AT A DISTANCE

Concern	Solution
Team interaction is infrequent.	Try the scheduled meetings and agenda-setting techniques suggested previously. Provide a list of questions around monthly topics that are timely for the new teacher. In addition to focusing your interaction, this list would help to prioritize your work when you are together. Communicate by telephone or computer network on both an informal and scheduled basis. Weekly conferences keep team members apprised of ongoing concerns and make it easier to schedule meeting times when necessary. Writing more notes and sharing written materials (for example, curriculum outlines and lesson plans) may be a productive way to communicate from a distance. For example, the new teacher could send a sketch of learning activities for the coming week to the mentor, who then responds by returning supplementary ideas or materials for the beginner to use.
By the time the new teacher gets a chance to share a concern, it is not fresh anymore or it is out of control.	Frequent telephone communication or networking by computer should provide ample opportunity for new teachers to share problems demanding the mentor's immediate attention. For less urgent concerns, the mentor might ask an on-site staff member to assist with the new teacher's immediate needs. Consider meeting periodically as a threesome over breakfast, dinner, or dessert and coffee.
Mentors at a distance may be unfamiliar with the new teacher's colleagues and the school's social norms; therefore, interpreting the cultural context is very difficult.	Often, mentors at a distance are purposely assigned to work with new teachers in a troubled school, where coworkers do not support one another or social interaction is strained. While interpreting the school culture may be difficult under these circumstances, the mentor is at a distinct advantage in being able to counsel the new teacher objectively about professional conduct and to model confidentiality. The mentor should stress these aspects of adjusting to the teaching context and avoid commenting on the behavior of the staff or norms of the school. Be alert to signs of stress and listen compassionately to the new teacher's concerns.

MENTORING AT A DISTANCE (continued)

Concern	Solution
Mentors worry about taking time away from their own classrooms. Often, they must take off a whole day to work with the new teacher due to the distance between their assigned schools.	In addition to identifying an on-site staff member to assist with the new teacher's immediate needs, the mentor can maximize those occasions when the team is together for a half or full day to both members' advantage. Coordination of the curriculum that team members teach or use of activities with similar extra-curricular groups may help to focus the more intensive, but less frequent, interaction of teams working at a distance. For example, a monthly daylong meeting could be devoted to planning an instructional unit. Then, mentor and new teacher return to their respective classrooms to implement the plan. Follow-up by telephone or in writing could focus on the strengths and shortcomings of the plan. Team members could take a half day late in the unit to team-teach lessons in the mentor's or new teacher's classroom. Too often the mentor may feel that he or she must travel to the new teacher's school for the team to work together. There are distinct advantages to the new teacher's visiting the mentor's school and classroom instead. For example, release time available to the team could be used for the new teacher to visit the mentor's building, with observations of other teachers scheduled in advance, followed by working in the mentor's classroom and consultation afterward. In this case, the mentor would not be required to be absent from the classroom at all, and his or her students would benefit from team-teaching.

MENTORING MULTIPLE NEW TEACHERS

Concern	Solution
Lack of time to perform the mentor role fully or well with all new teachers is a concern.	Maximize your time with all new teachers by performing some aspects of the mentor role with them together. For example, confer briefly with each new teacher on a weekly basis, then hold monthly meetings with all of them. If you pick a mutually convenient time and place one day a month, before or after school, and set an informal agenda to guide the meeting, you should be able to cover a lot of ground in a reasonable amount of time. Do not underestimate the benefits your new teachers will realize as they share time with you. They will learn that they often encounter similar difficulties and can assist each other in identifying solutions to the challenges they face. It also allows them to develop a collegial relationship with a true peer -- a fellow newcomer to the profession. In the interest of maintaining confidentiality, it is not recommended that new teachers' more personal problems be addressed in three-way meetings.
One new teacher needs a lot of time and attention, while the other does not and seems to be short-changed.	Since new teachers' problems are individualized and setting-specific, it is inevitable that some will need more help and support than others. In addition to dealing with more routine matters as a three-way team, the mentor may need to link *all* new teachers to other colleagues willing to assist in providing individualized instructional services or collegial support. In this regard, avoid the tendency to link *only* the more independent new teacher to other support providers. Through linking, the needier new teacher's support network expands, thereby increasing the opportunity for the new teacher to independently seek and obtain help with problems when the mentor is unavailable.
Mentoring more than one new teacher requires meeting after school and in the evenings every week.	Even teaming and linking will not eliminate the need for mentors with more than one new teacher to meet after hours occasionally. However, most project designs provide some opportunity for relief from regular duties for mentor-new teacher interaction. If the time demands are great, approach your project coordinator about the availability of release time for in-depth consultation once in a while. Remember, too, that mentoring does not require reviewing every lesson plan that your new teachers prepare or debriefing every activity delivered in their classrooms. If you set one or two basic goals for each team to accomplish, you may put the mentoring task in perspective and avoid taking on too much.

NEW TEACHERS WORKING WITH A TEAM

Concern	Solution
District has a large number of new teachers and requires a team configuration.	Four experienced teachers can be assigned as a team to four new teachers. Each experienced teacher is given the lead responsibility for one new teacher, but the eight work as a team. This encourages collegiality.

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Induction of Experienced Teachers Into a New School Site

Differences between novice teachers and experienced newcomers are explored, and objectives are presented for staff development programs in which principals facilitate the induction of experienced newcomers.

GARY N. HARTZELL

In the minds of many people, teacher induction refers to programs that support the transition from student teacher to certificated classroom teacher. There is, however, another group of teachers who are "inducted" every year but to whom considerably less attention is given. They are experienced teachers who become "newcomers" again because they have changed schools or even districts.

Becoming a member of an organization involves socialization to learn the norms, values, and required behavior patterns of the new group (Schein, 1987). The most widely recognized experiences of socialization take place when an individual first becomes a member of an organization.

However, when an employee changes work groups, transfers, or is promoted, even within the same field of endeavor, a resocialization experience is part of the entry into the new situation (Schein, 1987). An employee returning from a leave of absence to the same site and role may even experience additional socialization or resocialization if there has been a significant change in the environment, such as new administrators or the development of a strong union movement (Fisher, 1986).

Effective socialization for novices and resocialization for relocated veterans is important for both the employee and the organization. In fact, organizations that pay attention to how an employee is inducted actually have better records of productivity, tenure, and job satisfaction (Kotter, 1973).

The research literature in organization socialization and transition theory offers some important insights into the processes of veteran teacher induction. This article looks at some of that literature to address two questions: (a) How do the entry experiences of newcomers differ from those novices in an organization?, and (b) What should be the objectives of staff development programs to help principals facilitate the successful induction of experienced newcomers?

Novice and Veteran Newcomers

The first question to explore is, "How do the entry experiences of veteran newcomers differ from those of novices in an organization?" Organizational research points up at least two important differences between beginning and relocated teachers: (a) the mind set each brings to the first year of service in the organization, and (b) the way each is perceived by incumbent members of the organization.

Organizations that pay attention to how an employee is inducted actually have better records of productivity, tenure, and job satisfaction.

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Differing Mind Sets

The differences between the adjustment tasks of newly transplanted employees and employees new to the profession set different transition and socialization agendas for each (Feldman & Brett, 1983). While both are being socialized to the new organization during their first years, the experiences are different for the novice and the veteran.

The novice is being initiated into the profession as well as into the organization, and is creating a personal conception of the role of a teacher. The veteran brings an already formed sense of a teacher's role, and must alter it to fit the prevailing notion in the new work setting. This distinction is important because research indicates that though one may be consciously aware of how roles, norms, and values differ between organizations, an individual's responses are sometimes conditioned as much or more by internal systems as differences in the situations themselves (Jones, 1983).

Unlike the socialization of the novice, the experienced teacher may find that previous socialization interferes with adaption to the new environment. Prior experiences moderate one's ability to make rapid sense of a new situation and to generate appropriate responses (Jones, 1983). The veteran newcomer will have developed attitudes and responses in another setting, especially to uncertainty or perceived threat, that may prejudice the viewing of the new environment (Jones, 1983).

Consider, for example, the reference frame of a teacher coming from another school where there had been a very different approach to campus discipline, community relations, teacher-administrator interactions, or evaluation. In such cases, the veteran may need to suppress the inclination to respond to familiar stimuli with typical patterns of behavior. What was acceptable to previous colleagues, administration, students, and parents may not work with the new ones where norms and values are different (Brett, 1984; Louis, 1980a; Manning, 1970; Van Maanen, 1977).

Differing Perceptions

Incumbent members of an organization see differences between novice employees and experienced newcomers (Feldman & Brett, 1983). Experienced newcomers are less likely than neophytes to be seen as needing training for their new assignments. They are expected to already be aware of those things training would provide or be able to find them out on their own. They also are expected to be instantly competent and talented, where beginners are assumed to need time to get up to speed. Perhaps because they are so perceived, job changers have more opportunities than beginners, but the price is a higher expectation of performance.

These expectations can place heavy demands on veteran newcomers, especially those who (a) make significant geographical moves; (b) assume new or additional responsibilities as a coach, counselor, or activities director; or (c) take on different functions in their new positions, such as teaching at a different elementary school grade level or a different high school subject.

The way the newcomer is perceived is also influenced by the reasons behind the move. In transfers made because the receiving school needs a special talent, or because of some unavoidable situation like enrollment shifts, the newcomer is likely to be presumed as competent. The hiring of an experienced person from outside the system is usually interpreted as an affirmation of competence, rather than a test of it. Consequently, co-workers and friends are frequently less likely to see the need for increased levels of support (Feldman & Brett, 1983). This is unfortunate because there is evidence to indicate that interpersonal support plays an important role in successful adaptation to the changes wrought by such transitions in life (Bhagat, 1983; Brammer & Abrego, 1981; Schlossberg, 1981).

Objectives of Staff Development Programs for Principals

The second question to consider is, "What should be the objectives of staff development programs to help principals facilitate the successful induction of experienced newcomers?"

Induction programs for experienced newcomers should be focused at the school site rather than the district level because the most potent socialization forces operate at the work site through daily interactions (Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1987). Therefore, because principals can play a significant role in the induction of experienced newcomers, staff development programs should be devised for principals to help in this process.

The following recommendations for staff development for principals are based on research on organizational socialization, work transition, and communication. These recommendations are presented with two caveats: (a) virtually all of the studies supporting the recommendations were done in occupations other than education, and (b) no single recommendation or any set of recommendations can ever be appropriate to every school. Still, the diversity of occupations in which these studies were done, many of which were service professions, is broad enough to support reasonable generalization. These suggestions are offered for consideration within the context of each school's unique situation.

> ***Induction programs for experienced newcomers should be focused at the school site rather than the district level because the most potent socialization forces operate at the work site through daily interactions.***

Staff development should prepare principals to do the following.

1. ***Give veteran newcomers a realistic view of the new school.*** Organizational research has demonstrated that the expectations held by outsiders are almost always inflated (Wanous, 1977). This frequently results from recruiter attempts to present the organization in its best light in order to attract candidates. In cases of intra-district transfer, arriving teachers may have inac-

curate perceptions about the new school, especially if there is a tradition of rivalry between the sending and receiving schools.

A realistic preview of the school generally lowers newcomer expectations and thus reduces the differences between anticipated conditions and job realities. To provide realistic job previews, principals can develop "transition packets" of material for arriving veterans with written descriptions of the school and its programs, including recent accreditation reports.

Principals can schedule group meetings for incoming teachers to present specific information about the school and can designate a campus person to answer questions newcomers may have before, between, or after meetings.

Principals can also enable experienced newcomers to meet some incumbent employees before beginning work. Advance contacts with future co-workers can help greatly with efforts to provide a realistic job preview (Nicholson, 1987). These contacts can be arranged through new employee visits or group meetings, or with the help of the teachers' union.

2. ***Become aware of the emotional aspects of transitions and build a similar awareness in arriving teachers.*** Emotional swings, surprises, unmet expectations, self-doubts, and uncertainty are part of adjusting to change (Hopson & Adams, 1977; Louis, 1980a, 1980b; Nicholson, 1987). Understanding these occurrences as normal can help an employee work through the process and encourage the seeking of assistance and feedback. Without this awareness, administrators may tend to let the new person struggle through the transition alone, guided only by the results of trial and error. District or school-level programs for principals and newcomers should focus on change and transition. "Transition packets" may also include material on these topics.

3. ***Pay attention to informal socialization processes.*** Formal socialization practices include exposing the newcomer to such things as the official literature of the organization, training programs, formal orientations, and directions from superiors. Informal socialization results from observations and associations with peers. Informal socialization is a continuous process, while formal orientation programs are necessarily periodic.

Peers are perhaps the most important factor in helping newcomers adjust and feel effective (Fisher, 1986; Latane, 1981; Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983). They are "experts" on the organization as it exists and have information the newcomer wants. They have the power to give or withhold social acceptance. Research offers evidence that informal communication with co-workers of equal or higher status is perceived by employees to be a major contributor to adjustment (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983).

> ***Part of the role of a supervisor, and one of the functions of evaluation, is role clarification. Principals can use the evaluation system, with both formative and summative evaluations, as a vehicle for reducing uncertainty and providing feedback.***

Informal relationships are a common means for the delivery of what Stohl (1986) calls "memorable messages." These are messages that carry a lesson about living and working in the organization and are forever remembered by the employee. They are most often delivered early in a person's organizational experience, frequently by a superior, and most often in informal situations. The messages bear behavioral instructions that can become foundations for later performance.

Because newcomers learn the value system of an immediate work group much faster than that of the entire organization (Schein, 1987), principals should consider assigning experienced newcomers to teaching teams, block scheduled classes, or other positively oriented collaborative programs. In addition to initiating an immediate relationship with a carefully chosen insider, the teaching team may provide a safe environment for the newcomer to advance ideas and approaches and to receive feedback on their viability in the new setting.

Whether or not particular work assignments can be structured, arrangements can still be made for newcomers to regularly associate with positive people through orientation or pre-arrival staff development sessions. Principals can designate new teacher sponsors at the school, or assign the newcomer to a particular committee. Informal social meetings can be scheduled, such as a new teacher dinner. Some of these activities can be integrated with those for neophyte teachers, depending upon the number of teachers involved and the nature of the activity.

4. ***Use the addition of a newcomer as an opportunity to reallocate tasks along lines of individual preference, if possible.*** The newcomer's arrival and particular skills may offer an opportunity to redistribute teaching responsibilities among the members of the faculty in a fashion more pleasing to individual members. If workable, this redistribution can have a positive effect on team unity and morale in the existing staff. Care must be taken, however, to address the needs of the newcomer. Being assigned responsibilities that correspond to a person's individual talents is one way of recognizing professional status, which is an important element in building organizational commitment.

5. ***Involve veteran newcomers in important activities outside their immediate job description, and make sure they have at least as much responsibility as they had at their previous schools.*** A new job situation that reduces responsibility may lead to reductions in the worker's organizational commitment (Salancik, 1977). Maintaining or increasing employee responsibility levels demonstrates a professional confidence in that person. Newcomers should be immediately encouraged to sit on committees, engage in staff activities, and assume responsibility for projects of various kinds.

6. ***Provide feedback to veteran newcomers.*** Everyone benefits from realistic appraisal, but novices may receive more feedback than veteran job changers do (Brett, 1984). It is not enough to expect that newcomers will gain the information needed from formal evaluations alone, nor is it likely that they will feel secure enough to ask for assessments.

The danger is that good performers can interpret an absence of feedback as disappointment or disinterest on the part of supervisors (Feldman & Arnold, 1983). Without feedback, newcomers are left to obtain this information from observing how others react to what they do. This involves a high level of inference, which is highly subject to error, especially if the inferences are made in light of experiences and the accepted norms of a former organization (Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

Part of the role of a supervisor, and one of the functions of evaluation, is role clarification. Principals can use the evaluation system, with both formative and summative evaluations, as a vehicle for reducing uncertainty and providing feedback. Frequent formal and informal feedback may help reduce stress by replacing inaccurate self-appraisals with data that can guide the newcomer's subsequent assessments (Louis, 1980a).

Principals need to arrange regular formal and informal evaluative sessions with teachers new to the campus, and encourage other administrators and department chairs to do the same. Another way principals can open communication lines is to foster links between newcomers and nonsupervising administrators. This encourages question asking without the threat of admitting ignorance or incompetence to someone who is responsible for the employee's evaluation (Louis, 1980a).

Conclusion

Job movement, sought after or imposed, requires adjustment by the individual making the move. Administrators need to give attention to facilitating the adjustment of new teachers in every possible way. Staff developers can help in this process by developing in principals an awareness of this transition and suggesting strategies for providing assistance to newcomers.

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4. CHARACTERISTICS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS IN AN INDUCTION CONTEXT*

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by Sandra J. Odell

Structured teacher induction programs have emerged across the country. Eleven states have mandated induction programs for all school districts, and 21 other states are either piloting or planning statewide induction efforts (Hawk and Robards 1987). As induction programs continue to emerge, it becomes increasingly important to characterize fully the beginning teacher within an induction context.

Our previous research has been directed toward identifying those needs that are unique to beginning teachers undergoing induction to the teaching profession. This has been accomplished by observing the actual functioning of an elementary induction support program (Odell 1986b), by recording the questions new elementary teachers ask of induction support personnel across their first year of teaching (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987), and by identifying the developmental level of teaching for new teachers using a Stages of Concerns questionnaire (Odell 1987). In general, this research has served to characterize the evolution of the new teacher and tentatively to define the types of support needed in the induction of developing teachers.

The present research used the interview method to describe further the characteristics of new elementary teachers in an induction context. In particular, the research was designed (1) to reveal new teacher motivations, attitudes, and expectations; (2) to identify the concerns of beginning teachers and the support personnel most helpful to beginning teachers; (3) to assess the impact of the teaching context on the first year of teaching; and (4) to reveal what changes in teacher practice new teachers would make in a new year.

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PROCEDURE

The data were obtained within the context of a large-scale elementary school teacher induction program that is a collaborative effort between a college of education and a major school district (Odell 1986a). The subjects were 18 teachers, 16 females, and 2 males, who were drawn randomly from 180 first-year elementary teachers receiving weekly induction support from 9 clinical support teachers. The clinical support teachers were veteran classroom teachers who were released from classroom duties in order to work full time assisting the 180 beginning teachers. The 18 beginning teachers chosen for this study were all recent graduates holding baccalaureate degrees in elementary education.

During the course of the school year, the clinical support teachers administered an interview three times to the 18 beginning teachers: during the first two weeks of school, after the midyear holiday break, and in the last month of school. On the average, an interview took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

The interview consisted of seven open-ended questions that were read to the beginning teachers by a clinical support teacher. Four of the seven questions were asked in each of the three interviews, while the remaining three questions varied across the interviews. Each of the resultant interview questions was assumed to access one of the following seven characteristics: teacher motivation, teacher attitude, new teacher expectations, new teacher needs, sources of new teacher support, the impact of the teaching context, or teaching practice. The verbatim interview questions and teaching characteristics are listed in Table 1. Teacher responses to questions related to new teacher challenges/concerns were further subdivided into seven categories of needed support based on those used in a previous study, as shown in Table 2 (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987).

The interviews were tape-recorded for later transcription and analysis. Teacher responses to the questions as recorded and transcribed were then tallied using verbatim phrases so as to create a description of new teachers in an induction context.

RESULTS

In order to summarize the responses to the teacher motivation, teacher attitude, teacher expectation, sources of new teacher support, teaching context, and teaching practice questions, the percentage of subjects giving a particular response was determined.

With respect to teacher motivation, during Interview I, nine different reasons were given by the 18 subjects for becoming a teacher. Enjoyment of children or school was cited by 66.7 percent of the new teachers, and

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Table 1
Teaching Characteristics Accessed by Individual Interview Questions During Interviews, I, II, or III

Teaching Characteristics	Interview Questions
Motivation	
Interview I	Why did you decide to become a teacher?
Attitude	
Interview II	How do you feel about your decision to become a teacher?
Interview III	If you had it to do over again, would you decide to become a teacher?
Teacher practice	
Interview III	What would you do differently in a new year?
Challenges	
Interviews I, II	Currently, what are your biggest challenges?
Support personnel	
Interviews, I, II	Who has been helpful in dealing with the challenges?
Interviews I, II, III	Who has been the most helpful so far?
Concerns	
Interviews I, II, III	What concerns you the most right now?
Expectations	
Interviews I, II, III	In what ways has teaching been similar to or different from what you expected?
Context	
Interviews I, II, III	What about this school or community makes teaching particularly easy or difficult?

was the most frequently cited motivation. Wanting to be a teacher since childhood was mentioned by 22.2 percent and 16.7 percent mentioned being motivated by previous teachers of their own. The remaining responses were more individualistic and followed no discernible trend.

In general, the new teacher attitude questions revealed that the new teachers had very positive feelings about teaching. In Interview II, teachers were asked how they felt about their decision to be a teacher. All teachers but one responded positively with comments such as: "feels good," "right choice," "enjoy the profession," and "satisfied." The one other teacher said that she felt "good and bad depending on the day." Interview III revealed a similarly positive attitude about teaching, with 100 percent of the new teachers saying that they would decide to be

Table 2
Categories of Needed Support Used to Characterize Challenges and Concerns of New Teachers

Example Challenge/ Concern	Needed Support Category	Description of Support Category
Individualizing math activities	Instruction	Giving information to new teachers about teaching strategies
Meeting administrative expectations	System	Giving information to new teachers related to procedures and guidelines of the school district
Accumulating teaching materials	Resource	Collecting, disseminating, or locating resources for use by new teachers
Surviving the first year	Emotional	Offering new teachers personal support through empathic listening and by sharing experiences
Time allocation for instruction	Managerial	Helping new teachers manage and organize the school day
Dealing with parental expectations	Parental	Giving new teachers help with ideas related to conferencing with parents
Maintaining control	Discipline	Giving new teachers ideas related to managing children

a teacher if they had it to do over again. The expanded answers to this question, such as "Teaching is challenging," "I love working with the kids," and "I find teaching rewarding," also suggested uniformly positive attitudes about teaching.

The teacher expectation question revealed that subjects more often say that teaching is different than they expected than they say that it is the same as expected. Specifically, responses that teaching is different than expected encompassed 88.5 percent, 94.4 percent, and 76.2 percent of all the expectation responses in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. Subjects were less consistent regarding the particular ways that teaching is different than they expected. In Interview I, 33 percent of the subjects said that teaching is more difficult than they expected, and 16.7 percent listed classroom management as different than expected. The remaining responses specifically identifying the ways that teaching is different were quite variable and mentioned by only one new teacher. In Interview II, 16.7 percent of the subjects listed time management as more difficult than expected. In Interview III, 16.7 percent of the subjects responded that the work was harder than expected. All other responses to the expectation question in Interviews II and III were completely individual and demonstrated no particular pattern of response.*

Sources of support for new teachers were determined through two questions in Interviews I and II and through one question in Interview III. In response to the question of who has been helpful in dealing with challenges and concerns faced by the new teachers, colleague teachers were identified by 58.4 percent, 55.6 percent, and 50 percent of the subjects, clinical support teachers were identified by 44.7 percent, 58.3 percent, and 83.3 percent of the subjects, and principals were listed by 13.9 percent, 13.9 percent, and 33.3 percent of the subjects in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. Several other sources of support in dealing with concerns and facing challenges were identified but were listed by no more than one subject. There was a tendency, however, to list family members such as mother, spouse, and brother.

The impact of the teaching context on teaching was explored in all three interviews by asking teachers whether there was anything about their school or community that makes teaching particularly easy or difficult. In all three interviews, responses included factors that make teaching difficult. Parent or family difficulties comprised 36 percent of the 14 factors listed in Interview I, 46 percent of the 13 factors listed in Interview II, and 100 percent of the seven factors listed in Interview III. No other factors related to difficulty were listed more than once. In terms of the factors that make teaching particularly easy, the modal factor in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively, was staff support (33.3%), parental support (45.4%), and principal support (41.2%).

One teacher-practice question, "What will you do differently next year?" was asked in Interview III. There were a total of 26 responses from the 18 new teachers, 50 percent of which were related directly to instruction (e.g., "restructure the reading program," "plan more small-group instruction," "individualize instruction more"). The other 50 percent of the responses were related to changes the new teachers would make in their own behaviors (e.g., "relax more," "be more flexible," "set higher expectations for children").

New-teacher needs were determined through two questions in each of the three interviews. The responses to the questions of what are your biggest challenges and concerns were subdivided into seven categories of needed support, as shown previously in Table 2. Table 3 lists the percentage of responses in each of the seven need categories for all three interviews, as well as the mean percent responses for the three interviews combined.

Table 3
Percentage of Challenge and Concern Responses Made by New Teachers in Each Category of Needed Support for Each Interview and for the Mean of the Three Interviews Combined

Needed Support Category	Interview I	Interview II	Interview III	Mean Percent
Instruction	36.4	56.8	45.8	46.3
System	9.9	2.8	20.8	11.2
Resource	3.7	0.0	0.0	1.2
Emotional	3.9	2.8	6.2	4.3
Managerial	23.3	13.4	8.3	15.0
Parental	5.9	5.5	6.3	5.9
Discipline	17.1	18.7	12.5	16.1

By way of overview, instructional needs were identified most frequently in each interview, occurring 36.4 percent, 56.8 percent, and 45.8 percent of the time in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. System needs fell from 9.9 percent in Interview I to only 2.8 percent in Interview II, but increased to 20.8 percent in Interview III as the new teachers evinced concern over their job status for the ensuing school year. The resource, emotional, and parental categories received less focus with all percentages falling below 7 percent. Management needs were identified frequently during Interview I (23.3%) and declined over time in Interviews II (13.4%) and III (8.3%) as teachers presumably became more effective in organizing the school day. Needs related to discipline remained fairly stable from Interview I (17.1%) to Interview II (18.7%), but fell somewhat at Interview III (12.5%).

DISCUSSION

The data presented above, obtained in a teacher induction context, indicate that the majority of teachers are motivated to begin teaching by their enjoyment of children and school and that they maintain a very positive attitude about teaching across the induction year. Indeed, all of the new teachers at the end of their first year said that they would decide to begin teaching if they had that decision to make over again. This is encouraging, given the disturbing statistic that 15 percent of new teachers not in structured induction programs leave the profession after the first year (Schlechty and Vance 1983).

Over the past several years, there has been considerable attention given to the perils of beginning teaching (Glassberg 1979; Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983; Veenman 1984). More specifically, teachers entering the profession without induction support suffer "reality shock," in which there is a collapse of ideals formed in the process of teacher training, under the tremendous pressures of classroom teaching. It is a tribute to the concept of teacher induction that the new teachers in this program maintained a very positive attitude about teaching. This may be because the induction support offered to the new teachers served to lessen the teaching pressures they experienced. Almost all of the new teachers did say, however, that teaching is different from what they had expected in that teaching and aspects of time management were considerably more difficult than they had anticipated.

All of the new teachers found a variety of sources of support in dealing with the concerns and challenges they face. Somewhat more than half of the teachers found support in their teaching colleagues throughout the school year, although the influence of these colleagues declined some across time. Interestingly, the clinical support teachers became increasingly relied upon for support as the school year progressed, with more than 80 percent of the teachers using them as a source of support at the end of the school year. School principals were also seen as supportive by some of the teachers, but overall, school principals were not viewed as a particularly strong source of support by the new teachers.

First-year teachers are often uncomfortable with those in evaluative positions (Fox and Singletary 1986). In a study by Huffman and Leak (1986), new teachers viewed support personnel as "friendly critics" offering beneficial feedback and constructive criticism only if the support personnel were not in a formal evaluative role. In the present induction context, clinical support teachers were not involved in the evaluative process. Accordingly, it is not surprising that the clinical support teachers, who were offering assistance without assessment were identified by the new teachers as ultimately the most supportive in helping to meet the challenges and concerns of beginning teaching.

With respect to the teaching context, parental and family difficulties clearly represent a negative contextual factor for the major number of new teachers. This widely recognized contextual adversity is not completely ameliorated by a teacher induction context, and most likely will not be eliminated altogether in the absence of broader social change.

Of the significant categories of support needed by the new teachers that were revealed in the present interviews, two changed across time in predictable fashions. Support relating to administrative procedures of the school district was more needed at the end of the school year as teachers became concerned about their future employment. Support in managing and organizing the school day was most needed at the beginning of the school year and became less important at the end of the year when the new teachers had gained experience as a classroom instructional leader.

The two most frequently identified needs of the new teachers, those of support in the instructional process and in managing children, remained evident across the school year. In our previous research, the needs of new teachers in an induction context were assessed by observing the nature of support offered to new teachers by clinical support teachers (Odell 1986b), and by recording the questions that new teachers asked of clinical support teachers across their first year of teaching (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987). Both of these approaches yielded data consistent with the present interview data in finding that supporting new teachers in the instructional process is far and away the most critical aspect of a teacher induction program.

On the other hand, the prior research found that new teachers only infrequently asked clinical support teachers for guidance and ideas related to managing children and that clinical support teachers rarely offered new teachers spontaneous discipline support as compared to other categories of support. These data clearly indicated that discipline does not represent a major concern of new teachers. This conclusion is at odds with other data obtained using an interview procedure (Veenman 1984), including the present interview data, which show that discipline is a concern of major proportions to the new teacher. It may well be that the various methods of assessing the needs of beginning teachers in an induction context tap different dimensions of teacher needs. For example, the previously used direct observational approaches may be primarily recording the frequency of needed teacher support, while the present post hoc interview procedure may be primarily assessing the intensity of teacher concerns. In other words, discipline problems may not occur with a very high frequency for the new teacher, but when they do, they may be perceived by the new teacher to be of considerable intensity.

The present data do not directly reveal whether the characteristics of new teachers in an induction context differ substantially from those of new teachers not receiving structured induction support. However, in contrasting the present induction context data with the general literature pertaining to the characteristics of new teachers (e.g., Hawk 1984; Lortie 1975; Ryan et al. 1980), it would appear that the teacher induction context may produce new teachers who are characterized as being more motivated to continue teaching, more open to the receipt of support, and more focused on the instructional process during their initial teaching year.

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Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers

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ABSTRACT. Perceived problems of beginning teachers in their first years of teaching are reviewed. Studies from different countries are included. Issues such as the reality shock and changes in behaviours and attitudes are considered also. The eight problems perceived most often are classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, relationships with parents, organization of class work, insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. There is a great correspondence between the problems of elementary and secondary beginning teachers. Issues such as person-specific and situation-specific differences, views of the principals, problems of experienced teachers, and job satisfaction of beginning teachers are discussed also. Three frameworks of teacher development are presented which provide conceptualizations of individual differences among beginning teachers. Finally, forms of planned support for beginning teachers are noted. Research using an interactionistic model for the explanation of behaviour is needed.

Knowledge of the problems faced by beginning teachers in their first years of teaching may provide important information for the improvement and (re)designing of preservice and inservice programmes. For this reason, many studies have been conducted to determine these problems and the relationship between these problems and teacher education programmes. This review deals with the question, Which problems are identified in the research literature as the problems that beginning teachers perceive and experience during their first year(s) of teaching? A problem is seen as a difficulty that beginning teachers encounter in the performance of their task, so that intended goals may be hindered. In this study beginning teachers are teachers in their first full year of teaching after having received a degree stating that they are partly (as in Germany) or fully qualified to teach (as in the rest of the sampled countries). Teachers in their second and third years of teaching also are considered beginning teachers.

Before elaborating the central topic of this study, attention will first be paid to the phenomenon of the "reality shock."

The Reality Shock: Definition and Aspects

The transition from teacher training to the first teaching job could be a dramatic and traumatic one. In the English and German literature this transition often is referred to as the "reality shock," "transition shock," "Praxisschock," or "Reinwascheffekt." In general, this concept is used to indicate the collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the harsh and rude reality of everyday classroom life.

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Strictly speaking, "reality shock" is a somewhat inappropriately used term, because it suggests that it is only a very short shock which one has to pass, like a swimmer who must acclimatize to cold water. In fact, the reality shock deals with the assimilation of a complex reality which forces itself incessently upon the beginning teacher, day in and day out. This reality must be mastered continually, especially in the first period of actual teaching.

The reality shock is not an unambiguous concept; it points to a number of heterogeneous forms. Müller-Fohrbrodt, Cloetta, and Dann (1978) distinguished five indications of a reality shock:

1. Perceptions of problems: This category includes subjectively experienced problems and pressures, complaints about work load, stress, and psychological and physical complaints.
2. Changes of behaviour: Implied are changes in teaching behaviour contrary to one's own beliefs because of external pressures.
3. Changes of attitudes. Implied are changes in belief systems (e.g., a shift from progressive to conservative attitudes with respect to teaching methods).
4. Changes of personality: This category refers to changes in the emotional domain (e.g., lability-stability) and self-concept.
5. Leaving the teaching position: The disillusion may be so great, that the beginning teacher leaves the profession early.

A considerable amount of research has been done with regard to the perceptions of experienced problems and the changes of attitudes. Little research is available about the other aspects of a reality shock. I will briefly present some of these results before addressing the perceived problems of beginning teachers.

Changes in Behaviour

In the study by Bergmann et al. (1976), 57% of the beginning teachers reported that they had changed their original student-centered teaching behaviours into a more authoritarian way. In a study by Walter (1974), 94% of the beginning teachers said that they initially tried to realize a more democratic teaching style; as a consequence of experienced difficulties 91% admitted that they had made concessions in this regard. Both studies dealt with self-reports, not with observations, so it is not clear if these results refer to changes in behaviour or to changes in attitude. Studies that included classroom observation systems are discussed below.

Moskowitz and Hayman (1974, 1976) compared the teaching behaviours of first-year teachers in urban high schools over the course of a school year with the teaching behaviours of experienced "best" teachers (chosen from nominations by students). At the end of the school year, greatest differences between groups occurred in control, discipline, and immediate feedback behaviours. Beginning teachers had more difficulty with control. They seemed to allow much disorder to go unnoticed, as if it would go away by itself if not acknowledged. Best teachers were able to increase student involvement (on-task behaviour) in the class throughout the year, whereas new teachers were not. Best teachers focused more on setting expectations and establishing appropriate behaviour on the first day. Recent studies of effective classroom management at the beginning of the year support the importance of establishing and communicating rules, procedures, and expectations to students in the first days of instruction (Emmer & Evertson, 1981).

The fact that classroom discipline is a real problem for beginning teachers may be explained in part by different patterns in the thinking or decision processes of beginning and experienced teachers. Fogarty, Wang, and Creek (1982) noted that beginning teachers were less able to attend to spontaneous student responses and to cues from the class as a whole than were experienced teachers, but instead were very sensitive to student behaviours that could disrupt their planned presentation.

In order to evaluate teacher education programmes Adams and Ayers systematically followed a sample of graduates for several years. Adams (1982a, 1982b) studied the classroom behaviour over a 6-year period beginning with student teaching and continuing through 5 years of teaching experience. Beginning teachers showed significant increases in organized/systematic behaviour, affective teaching behaviour, and surgent/stimulating teaching behaviour. The greatest change was between the first and third years of teaching.

Ayers (1980) reached a similar conclusion in a 5-year longitudinal study of teachers using equivalent instruments. An examination of the observational data indicated that the highest mean ratings on cognitive dimensions (responsible, systematic, businesslike behaviour) and affective dimensions (kindly, understanding, friendly behaviour) occurred in the third year of teaching. However, Ayers noted no significant differences across the years of experience. After 3 or 4 years on the job, he believed that many teachers may settle into a pattern of teaching that becomes relatively stable.

With respect to leaving the teaching profession as a symptom of the reality shock, Taylor and Dale (1971) stated that male probationers (beginning teachers in their first year of teaching) with class discipline problems were more likely than those who did not experience them to consider that they would not be teaching in 5 years (this did not apply to female probationers). Leaving the profession or leaving the current school is a recurrent theme in the stories of young teachers who looked back at their first year of teaching (Ryan, 1970, 1980). These options may be less open for beginning teachers in the eighties than it was in the sixties and seventies given the current oversupply of teachers.

In summary, data from observations of beginning teachers are still limited. The instruments used in the studies of Adams and Ayers were based on the work of Ryans (1960) and Flanders (1970). They allowed for judgments of "effective" teacher behaviour and measures of verbal interactions (indirect vs. direct behaviour). The results of these studies indicate that the teaching style may be developed early in teachers' careers (cf. Blase & Greenfield, 1982). However, these studies were designated to evaluate teacher education programmes. The findings may not be characteristic of teachers in general and may reflect the specific aspects of teachers prepared by those programmes. Other studies that used observations (e.g., Gehrke, 1981; Tabachnick, Zeichner, Densmore, & Hudak, 1983) are discussed elsewhere in this paper.

Changes in Attitudes

Many studies provide evidence that students become increasingly idealistic, progressive, or liberal in their attitudes toward education during their preservice training and then shift to opposing and more traditional, conservative, or custodial views as they move into student teaching and the first years of teaching. A number of longitudinal studies using various instruments to measure attitude change support this notion. Hoy (1968, 1969) measured the pupil control ideology before and after student teaching and again after the first and second year of teaching. He found that the pupil control ideology of the teachers became more custodial. By means of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, Müller-Fohrbrodt et al. (1978), Dann, Cloetta, Müller-Fohrbrodt, and Helmreich (1978), and Dann, Müller-Fohrbrodt, and Cloetta (1981) studied the changes of attitudes of German teachers. They followed a relatively large group of elementary and secondary teachers from their first year of teacher training into their third year of teaching. They noted that a relatively "conservative" attitude before teacher training was succeeded by a relatively fast "liberalization" during teacher training, followed by a strong revision in a conservative direction during the first year of teaching. The originally observed conservative attitude shift continued, indicating that the phenomenon could not be considered typical only for the beginning teachers but persisted as an enduring effect of their interaction with the job environment. McArthur (1981) followed a relatively large group of Australian secondary teachers from their final year of teacher training, through the first year of teaching, until they had completed the first 5 years of teaching. Contrary to the German findings, an increase in custodialism in the first year of teaching was followed by a plateau period over the next 4 years. These subsequent years tended to see a leveling out of attitudes toward pupils and teaching, an internalization of occupational values.

Other short-term, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies from different countries support the evidence of the changes in attitudes from conservatism/custodialism to progressivism/humanism and again to conservatism/custodialism (deWijs, 1980; Hinsch, 1979; Hoy & Rees, 1977; Lacey, 1977; Lagana, 1970; Liebhart, 1970; MacIntyre & Morrison, 1967; Olgers & Riesenkamp, 1980).

Two remarks must be made about these findings. First, liberalization is a general effect of the university and not particularly an effect of teachers' colleges. Revision of attitudes is a general phenomenon at the entry of a career and is not restricted to teachers (cf. Ulich, 1980). Second, the change in attitudes does not follow a same pattern for all groups of teachers, but depends in part on personal variables, on preferences for particular subject matter, on the quality of teacher training, and on situational characteristics of the work place. For instance, it appeared that depressive, introverted, and uncommunicative young teachers changed their attitudes in a more conservative direction than young teachers who did not possess these qualities. The more discrepancies the young teachers experienced between school reality and their teaching training ideals, the more their attitudes changed in a conservative direction, and the more they were inclined to use authoritarian behaviour. The progressive beginning teachers experienced more problems with their working situation, their instruction, and their superiors and colleagues than the conservative beginning teachers. On the other hand, progressive teachers had more permanent innovative attitudes (Dann et al., 1978; Müller-Fohrbrodt et al., 1978). Young science teachers were more conservative/custodial in their pupil control ideology than teachers trained in humanities subjects (Dann, 1978; Lacey, 1977; McArthur, 1981). The "subject subculture" appeared to be a pervasive phenomenon, affecting attitudes toward education.

Studies of attitude changes seem to suggest that the impact of teacher education courses is "washed out" by everyday experience in the schools. Zeichner (1980) has outlined various explanations in the literature for this change in teaching attitudes. The bureaucratic norms of the schools (Hoy & Rees, 1977); cooperative teachers, principals, and others with evaluative power over student teachers and beginning teachers (Edgar & Brod, 1970); the structural characteristics of schools and the teacher's work (Dreeben, 1970; Hänsel, 1975); the ecology of the classroom (Copeland, 1980; Doyle, 1977); the reference group of colleagues (Edgar & Brod, 1970; Newberry, 1977); and pupils and parents (Lortie, 1975) all have been seen to play major roles in this shift. According to Mahan and Lacefield, the theory of cognitive dissonance provides an excellent conceptual framework from which to examine changes of attitudes (Lacefield & Mahan, 1979; Mahan & Lacefield, 1978). This theory holds that if persons experience prolonged cognitive dissonance they probably will change their attitudes to reduce that dissonance.

To this commonly accepted scenario, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) add two alternative views, also found in the literature, of how teacher education and schools influence teacher development. The first is the low impact of professional training and the maintenance of traditional teaching attitudes throughout professional education. According to Lortie (1975), Hanson and Herrington (1976), and Petty and Hogben (1980) teacher socialization is largely completed before formal training: Biography is the key element in teacher socialization. The second view is the partnership of teacher training institutions and schools in the development of traditional teaching attitudes. Teacher education and schools have a considerable impact on the attitudes and practices of students and beginning teachers, but this impact is effectively conservative (Mardle & Walker, 1980; Tabachnick, Popkewitz, & Zeichner, 1979–1980) or remarkably stable with regard to perceptions of self in the teaching role (Power, 1981). All three views outlined above have some credibility.

Possible Causes of the Reality Shock

The reality shock could be the result of different causes. Müller-Fohrbrodt et al. (1978) group them into personal and situational causes. Personal causes may be a wrong choice for the teaching profession, improper attitudes, and unsuitable personality characteristics. Situational causes may be inadequate professional training, a problematic school situation (authoritarian, bureaucratic, and hierarchical relationships, fixed organizational structures, inadequate staffing and shortage of materials and supplies, the absence of explicitly stated educational objectives, loneliness in the work place, parents who lay special emphasis on the transmission of knowledge, the multiplicity of tasks that a teacher must fulfill). Sometimes, beginning teachers are given more difficult classes or less able classes, or they have to teach subjects in which they are not trained (Taylor & Dale, 1971; Lademann & Lietzke, 1977; Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981; Adams, 1982a).

Ryan (1979) offers the following speculations about the problems of beginning teachers as a group: (a) Teachers have difficulty in their first year because they are essentially undertrained for the demands of their work; (b) there are no clear selection criteria in teacher training, and (c) beginning teachers have had a general training and are not trained for specific jobs in specific schools.

Besides being an initiation into the profession, the first year of teaching is also an initiation into the adult world with its responsibilities (living away from home, looking for new accommodations, making new friends, raising a family). From the freedom of student life the beginning teacher is moved to the restrictions and responsibilities of professional life (McDonald & Elias, 1983; Ryan, 1970, 1980), making the first year a period of immense learning.

I have described these possible causes and the findings of studies on changes in behaviour and attitudes to sketch a frame of reference for the perceived problems of beginning teachers as presented in this study.

Source and Description of Sample of Studies

To gain an indication of the perceived problems of beginning teachers an international literature search was conducted. Restricting the sample to studies conducted from 1960 to the present was necessary, because the problems of beginning teachers have been studied since the turn of this century (see, e.g., Johnston, 1978). Studies conducted before 1960 seem less meaningful if we look at the rapid changes in the educational systems, job placement possibilities, and the labour market.

When conducting this review I did not attempt to make a complete and exhaustive list of studies. The aim was to review the relevant literature to get an impression of the problems of beginning elementary and secondary teachers from an international perspective. In selecting the literature the following criteria were used: The studies must deal with problems of beginning teachers and not with those of experienced teachers, and the studies must be based on empirical research. Studies with notes from diaries, essays from beginning teachers with reflections on their first year(s) of teaching, and anecdotal descriptions were excluded, although some of them are important because they develop a fine-grained portrait of the lives of the young teachers (e.g., Ryan, 1970, 1980). Despite some overlap, studies of teacher stress and teacher concerns (based on the work of Fuller, 1969) were excluded also (see e.g., the reviews of Coates & Thoresen, 1976; Keavney & Sinclair, 1978).

An international bibliographic search yielded 83 studies. The secondary sources for these studies were primarily the indexes: ERIC, *Dissertation Abstracts International, Eudised R&D Bulletin, Bibliographie Pädogogik, Pädagogischer Jahresbericht, BIB-Report, Information Bibliographiques en Sciences de l'Education*, and *Bulletin Signalétique*. These sources were searched by computer (with some support from the Foundation of Educational Research—SVO) and by hand. The bibliographies in articles, reports, and dissertations (primary sources) provided a second source of studies. The studies located are listed in Table I. This table shows who conducted the study, when the study was published, in what geographical location it was conducted, the level of the school, the number of subjects, and the method of investigation.

Of these studies, 55 were from the United States (including 1 from Puerto Rico), 7 from West Germany, 6 from the United Kingdom, 5 from the Netherlands, 4 from Australia, 2 from Canada, 2 from Austria, 1 from Switzerland, and 1 from Finland.

TABLE I

Characteristics of Sampled Studies on Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers

Study	Date	Location	School level	Number of participants	Method of investigation
Ackerman	1966	Nebraska	elementary	?	questionnaire
Adams	1982b	Kentucky	elemen. & second.	192	questionnaire
Anderson	1963	Iowa	secondary	90	questionnaire
Applegate et al.	1977	Ohio	elemen. & second.	18	interview & observation
Bergen et al.	1983	Netherlands	secondary	44	questionnaire
Bergmann et al.	1976	Hessen	elemen. & second.	226	questionnaire
Blackburn	1977	Alabama	elemen. & second.	200	questionnaire & interview
Bouchard & Hull	1970	New York	elemen./second.	53	questionnaire
Bradley & Eggleston	1978	Midlands (UK)	elemen. & second.	93	logs
Chafetz	1976	New York	elementary	15	interview
Chapman	1967	St. Louis	secondary	199	questionnaire
Clark & Nisbet	1963	Aberdeen	elemen. & second.	242	questionnaire
Clinton	1966	Texas	elementary	100	interview
Cloetta & Hedinger	1981	Bern	elemen. & second.	815	questionnaire
Cornwell et al.	1965	Birmingham	elemen. & second.	1150	questionnaire
Cortis & Dean	1969–70	London	elementary	131	questionnaire
Cruickshank & Broadbent	1968	New York	elemen. & second.	163	questionnaire
Cruickshank & Leonard	1967	USA	elementary	287	questionnaire
Cruickshank et al.	1974	USA	secondary	310	questionnaire
De Angelis	1979	Ohio	elementary	24	interview
deBruin	1975	Ohio	elementary	5	interview, logs, observation
deVoss & Dibella	1981	Ohio	elemen. & second.	156	questionnaire, observation, interview
Dropkin & Taylor	1963	New York	elemen. & second.	78	questionnaire
Dunn	1972	Louisiana	secondary	?	interview
Eckinger	1979	Bavaria	elemen. & second.	363	questionnaire
Engelsman	1976	S. Holland	elementary	18 & 25	questionnaire & interview

Continued on next page

Table I, *continued*

Study	Date	Location	School level	Number of participants	Method of investigation
Farrington	1980	USA	secondary	295	questionnaire
Felder, Hollis, Piper, & Houston	1979	Texas	elemen. & second.	30	questionnaire & group meetings
Fitzgerald	1972	Louisiana	elemen. & second.	42	interview
Formica	1962	Connecticut	elementary	750	questionnaire
Franc	1970	New York	elementary	75 incl. 14	questionnaire & interview
Frech & Reichwein	1977	W. Germany	secondary	876	questionnaire
Grantham	1961	Mississippi	secondary	?	questionnaire
Hanson & Herrington	1976	Durham (UK)	elemen. & second.	16	logs
Hermanowicz	1966	USA	elemen. & second.	312	interview
Hooymayers et al.	1976	Netherlands	secondary	243	questionnaire
Houston & Felder	1982	Texas	elemen. & second.	52	logs, questionnaire, interview
Iberer	1974	Styria	secondary	18	interview
Iriarte	1974	Iowa	spec. educ.	221	questionnaire
Isaac	1962	Chicago	elementary	815	questionnaire
Kennedy et al.	1976	Ohio	secondary	159	questionnaire
Koller	1974	Bamberg	elementary	?	questionnaire
Koskenniemi	1965	Heinola (Finland)	elementary	63	questionnaire
Lademann & Lietzke	1977	Giessen	elemen. & second.	25	questionnaire
Lagana	1970	Pennsylvania	elemen. & second.	46	interview
Lörcher et al.	1974	Baden-Wurttemberg	elemen. & second.	175	questionnaire
Lynch & Kuehl	1977	Iowa	elemen./sec./spec.educ.	120	questionnaire
Miller	1971	Philadelphia	secondary	180	questionnaire
Moller	1968	Nebraska	secondary	? incl. 37	questionnaire & interview
Newberry	1977	Ontario	secondary	23	interview & observation
Otto et al.	1979	Queensland	elemen./second.	345	questionnaire
Penrod	1974	Indiana	secondary	35	questionnaire
Pharr	1974	Calif/Col/Florida	secondary	30	questionnaire
Radar	1961	Nebraska	secondary	?	questionnaire
Range	1971	Texas	elementary	86 incl. 41	questionnaire & interview
Riley	1979	Florida	secondary	79	questionnaire
Rodriguez	1967	Puerto Rico	elemen. & second.	72	questionnaire
Schilson	1962	Iowa	elementary	127	questionnaire
Schweiger & Ludescher	1980	Vienna	elemen. & second.	17	essays
Scriven & Shaw	1977	Queensland	elementary	?	questionnaire
Shelley	1978	Oregon	elementary	25 incl. 23	teacher logs & interview
Smith	1975	S. Carolina	elementary	24	questionnaire
Stanbrough	1972	Colorado	secondary	242	questionnaire
Stegall	1967	Alabama	elemen. & second.	185 incl. 23	questionnaire & interview
Stone	1964	Colorado	secondary	168	questionnaire
Swartz & Richardson	1965	USA	elemen. & second.	?	interview
Taylor & Dale	1971	England & Wales	elemen. & second.	3588 incl. 348	questionnaire & interview
Taylor & Dropkin	1965	New York	elemen. & second.	136	questionnaire
Telfer	1981	New South Wales	elemen. & second.	?	questionnaire
Thompson	1971	Iowa	elemen. & second.	188	questionnaire & group interviews
Tisher et al.	1979	Australia	elemen. & second.	1300 incl. 200	questionnaire & interview
Turner	1966	Indiana	elementary	?	questionnaire
Valine	1975	Alabama	elementary	80	questionnaire
Van Dyke	1976	Mississippi	elemen. & second.	300	questionnaire
Veenman et al.	1983	Guelderland	elementary	21	interview
Vinson	1970	Florida	secondary	144	questionnaire
Vonk	1982	Amsterdam	secondary	20	teacher logs & interview
Walter	1974	Munich	elemen. & second.	80	questionnaire
Webb	1963	Kansas	secondary	168	questionnaire
Whitman	1966	Ohio	elemen. & second.	60	questionnaire
Williams	1976	Georgia	elemen./sec./spec.educ.	293	questionnaire
Wright	1975	Newfoundland	elementary	107	questionnaire
York	1967	Indiana	elementary	113	questionnaire

All studies were concerned with beginning teachers in their first year of teaching, with the exception of the studies by Cornwell et al. (1965), Lörcher, Mogge, and Müller-Fohrbrodt (1974), Eckinger (1979), and Veenman, Berkelaar, and Berkelaar (1983), which were concerned with teachers in their first and second year; the study by Koskenniemi (1965), which was concerned with teachers in their second year; and the study by Walter (1974), which was related to teachers in their second and third years. In the studies by Vinson (1969), Hermanowicz (1966), Hooymayers et al. (1976), Kennedy, Cruikshank, and Meyers (1976), Lynch and Kuehl (1977), Cloetta and Hedinger (1981), Telfer (1981), and Bergen, Peters, and Gerris (1983), beginning teachers were defined as teachers with 1 to 3 years of experience.

Studies that used a national sample were exceptions. Only the studies by Taylor and Dale (1971), Hooymayers et al. (1976), Frech and Reichwein (1977), Tisher, Fyfield, and Taylor (1979), and Bergen et al. (1983) had national samples. I also classified the studies by Hermanowicz (1966), Cruickshank and Leonard (1967), Cruickshank, Kennedy, and Myers (1974), and Farrington (1980) as studies with a national sample because these studies included samples from more than 10 states of the United States.

Methods of Investigation in the Sampled Studies

Most studies in the sample used the questionnaire method, more specifically the rating scale method. Respondents were asked to rate on a point scale the degree to which a problem was encountered (e.g., running from "no problem" to "a major problem"). Sometimes a problem/no problem checklist was used (e.g., Cruickshank & Broadbent, 1968; Tisher et al. 1979), and sometimes a combination of closed and open ended questions was used (e.g., Bouchard & Hull, 1970; Eckinger, 1979). The number of items in a questionnaire varied greatly, from 7 to 163.

Besides the questionnaire a few studies used the interview. These interviews were carried out with a subsample of the original group to supplement information obtained from the questionnaires (See Table I). Often the interview data were not published separately. Therefore, only the questionnaire data will be reported.

After the questionnaire, the interview was the most commonly used method of investigation. Because of the time-consuming character of an interview study, the numbers of respondents in these studies were considerably smaller than in studies in which the questionnaire was used.

Classification of the Problems

To identify the most serious problems of beginning teachers a list was compiled of the problems mentioned most frequently in the 83 studies. From each study the 15 most serious problems were selected. These problems were classified according to their importance and rank ordered. For most studies this was not a difficult task, because the investigators themselves had already rank ordered the problems of beginning teachers according to the frequencies by which a problem was mentioned by the respondents or according to the means of the ratings of the respondents. Some investigators reported their results as follows: "60% of the respondents mentioned the following problems . . . , furthermore 40% of the respondents encountered problems with . . . ." In this case the problems that belonged to the same group were given an identical rank (the median score). In some cases investigators did not group and rank their results, but mentioned only the most important problems. In this case all problems were classified "as equals" and given the median score based on the total number of identified problems (maximally 15).

A problem that was identified in one study as the most serious problem might have a rank of 10 in a second study, and in a third study it might not be mentioned at all. To compare these studies, a list was made of the problems reported most often. A total of 68 problems were identified. Then a frequency list was made (vote counting). The result of this method is presented in Table II, which gives an overview of the 24 most often perceived problems, ranked according to their reported frequencies.

Finally, the "seriousness" of the problem was roughly estimated. For that end, the 15 most important problems received a score: problem one received a score of 15, problem two received a score of 14, and so on. Problems with the same rank received the median score of the tie to which they belonged. In this way each problem got a score each time it was mentioned in a study. The medians and the semi-interquartiles are presented in Table II.

To identify differences between school levels, the results were grouped into two categories: elementary education and secondary education. Five studies (Adams, 1982b; Bouchard & Hull, 1970; Lynch & Kuehl, 1977; Otto, Gasson, & Jordan, 1979; Williams, 1976) reported results for primary education, secondary education, and/or for both educational systems. They appear in Table II more than once. In this table a total of 91 studies is listed. (The study of Iriarte, which is concerned with problems of beginning teachers in special education, is excluded from Table II).

Results

As shown in Table II, *classroom discipline* was the most seriously perceived problem area of beginning teachers. Of course not all beginning teachers experienced problems with classroom discipline. The percentage of beginning teachers with discipline problems varied greatly. In the study by Frech and Reichwein (1977) 12% of the beginning gymnasium teachers reported problems with class discipline, whereas in the study by Lagana (1970) 83% of the elementary and secondary beginning teachers experienced problems. Whether this diversity was caused by differences in educational systems and social contexts of the schools in the various countries could not be deduced from these data.

As noted before, most studies used a prestructured questionnaire. In interpreting the above results one must keep in mind that "class discipline" is not an unambiguous concept. What is called discipline or order by one teacher may be called disorder by another teacher and vice versa. Even the interview studies did not give more information. They, too, only registered the problem; they did not clarify or define the problem as viewed by beginning teachers, experienced teachers, principals, administrators, parents, and students. Such a clarification is much needed for a correct understanding of the problem. Labels like classroom discipline and classroom management may be regarded as code words for a whole host of specific difficulties and point to kinds of skills that beginning teachers usually lack and to needs they have for assistance (McDonald & Elias, 1983). Besides, research indicated that the more problems beginning teachers encountered, the more likely they

TABLE II

Summary of the Results: The 24 Most Frequently Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers

Rank order[a]	Problems	All studies (*N* = 91)			Elementary level (*N* = 28)			Secondary level (*N* = 27)			Elem. & secondary (*N* = 36)		
		Freq.	Med.	Q	Freq.	Med.	Q	Freq.	Med.	Q	Freq.	Med.	Q
1	Classroom discipline	77	13.0	1.4	22	12.3	1.4	23	13.5	1.3	32	12.5	1.5
2	Motivating students	48	12.8	1.9	11	12.0	2.5	16	14.0	1.5	21	12.0	1.8
3	Dealing with individual differences	43	13.0	1.5	15	12.0	1.3	12	13.8	0.5	16	12.0	1.5
4.5	Assessing students' work	31	10.0	2.0	9	9.0	2.5	8	9.0	2.7	14	10.5	2.3
4.5	Relations with parents	31	9.0	3.5	11	11.5	2.5	4	6.0	1.8	16	9.3	3.9
6.5	Organization of class work	27	12.5	2.8	10	12.8	3.4	2	13.8	0.3	15	11.0	2.3
6.5	Insufficient materials and supplies	27	11.0	2.5	9	13.0	1.8	6	10.5	2.5	12	9.3	3.3
8	Dealing with problems of individual students	26	12.5	1.5	7	11.0	1.3	8	13.0	1.6	11	13.0	1.0
9	Heavy teaching load resulting in insufficient prep. time	25	12.0	2.3	6	12.5	1.8	7	10.0	2.5	12	12.0	2.1
10	Relations with colleagues	24	8.0	3.0	6	9.3	3.4	8	10.5	3.4	10	6.0	2.3
11	Planning of lessons and schooldays	22	11.8	2.6	6	11.3	3.4	4	12.5	1.6	12	11.8	3.6
12	Effective use of different teaching methods	20	12.0	3.6	5	12.5	5.1	6	11.5	2.3	9	12.0	2.6
13	Awareness of school policies and rules	19	11.0	3.0	6	10.5	4.7	5	13.5	3.5	8	11.0	1.9
14	Determining learning level of students	16	10.5	2.8	3	13.0	2.8	6	9.0	2.7	7	11.0	3.3
16	Knowledge of subject matter	15	11.0	1.5	5	11.0	2.1	5	11.0	1.6	5	8.5	2.0
16	Burden of clerical work	15	9.0	1.8	4	11.0	2.3	1	7.0	—	10	9.0	1.4
16	Relations with principals/administrators	15	9.0	3.0	4	8.5	3.3	4	8.5	3.1	7	9.0	3.5
18	Inadequate school equipment	14	11.0	2.6	6	10.5	3.5	2	11.3	0.8	6	11.0	3.1
19	Dealing with slow learners	13	12.0	1.4	3	11.0	4.0	6	12.0	1.7	4	13.0	1.8
20	Dealing with students of different cultures and deprived backgrounds	12	9.0	2.6	3	3.0	4.0	2	9.0	0.0	7	9.0	2.5
21	Effective use of textbooks and curriculum guides	11	8.5	3.5	3	6.5	5.5	2	14.0	1.0	6	7.8	2.4
22	Lack of spare time	10	11.0	2.3	1	5.0	—	2	11.0	1.0	7	11.0	2.3
23	Inadequate guidance & support	9	8.0	2.5	2	9.8	1.8	1	14.0	—	6	8.0	2.2
24	Large class size	8	9.5	2.4	3	9.0	3.5	0	—	—	5	10.0	2.1

[a] The rank is based on the number of times a problem was mentioned in the sampled studies (see column 1 "frequency"). The median is based on the number of scores which could range per study from 15 (for the problem that ranked number 1) to 1 (for the problem that ranked number 15). Med. = median, Q = semi-interquartile.

were to leave teaching (Taylor & Dale, 1971). Turner (1966) suggested that beginning teachers with discipline problems had less favorable attitudes toward the school staff than those teachers with no problems.

Motivation of students ranked the second highest in the list of perceived problems. Beginning secondary teachers reported more problems with motivating students than did beginning primary teachers.

Dealing with individual differences among students was the third most frequently mentioned problem. To vary curricular and instructional practices to accommodate differences among learners proved to be difficult.

Assessing students' work and *relations with parents* were the fourth and fifth most frequently mentioned problems. Accumulating reliable information and acting as an evaluator were problematic activities. The problematic relationship with parents had several aspects. Beginning teachers complained about the inadequate preparation to establish and maintain proper relationships with the students' parents. Contacting parents and the organization of parents' nights were difficulties. Furthermore, beginning teachers complained about the parents' insufficient support for their ideas and parents' inadequate interest in the well-being of their children at school. Many complaints were also directed at the parents' lack of confidence in the beginning teacher's competence. The observational study of McIntosh (1977) suggested that parents placed pressure on beginning elementary teachers through phone calls and comments made during visits to the school. "The parents tend to emphasize the value of traditional academic work, and to indicate support for quiet and order in the classroom" (p. 3193).

Because Table II is fairly self-explanatory, I will not discuss the remaining problems. In addition to the problems listed in this table, the following problems were reported in the sampled studies: doubts and worries about own competence, inexperience with audiovisual aids, relationships with students, relationships with the school community, and insufficient preparation for the job of teaching. All these problems were mentioned frequently in the sampled studies.

There were no perceptible differences between the studies of the sixties and the seventies or between the studies executed inside and outside the United States.

Individual and Situational Differences

Some of the sampled studies tried to relate the problems of beginning teachers to personal and situational variables: gender, age, job satisfaction, attitude, teacher behaviour, experience, concerns, personality traits, student ratings, supervisor ratings, and teacher training.

Stone (1964) found that male beginning teachers experienced fewer problems than female beginning teachers (secondary education), and that teachers between 24 and 34 years old had fewer problems than teachers under 24 and above 35 years old. On the other hand, Grantham (1961), Taylor and Dale (1971), and Williams (1976) reported no differences between sex and age.

Lörcher et al. (1974) reported that "progressive oriented teachers" perceived more problems than "conservative oriented teachers" (except relationships with students and parents). New teachers with lower levels of idealism felt more capable of handling classroom problems than those with higher levels of idealism (Griffin, 1983).

Adams and Martray (1980) and Adams (1982b) noted that secondary teachers who had higher undergraduate grade point averages reported more problems with teaching than did elementary teachers. Beginning teachers who were observed by independent observers as more student oriented and less inclined to lecture, reported fewer problems with teaching. Teachers who reported problems as less severe were rated by supervisors (generally principals) as having fewer problems. Teachers who were perceived as effective by their students reported less severe problems with teaching. Teachers with higher concern levels about self and teaching tasks reported more severe problems in teaching, a logical and expected finding. The longitudinal study revealed that teacher perceptions of problems with student, administrator, and parent relationships increased over the experience levels (student teaching, first, third, fifth year of teaching). Aspects of teaching that involved student control and motivation were perceived as the greatest problems for teachers across all experience levels.

Myers, Kennedy, and Cruickshank (1979) examined the relations between personality traits (as measured by the Edwards Personality Inventory) and problems reported by teachers. They found several complex relationships (e.g., anxious teachers with strong needs for acceptance, certainty, and an orderly environment perceived more problems with discipline and time management).

Some investigators related the perceived problems to teacher training or to school variables. Stanbrough (1972) found that student teaching all day for 8 weeks rather than half day for a semester reduced the number of problems. Flowers and Shearron (1976) found that first-year teachers trained in a competency-based teacher education (CBTE) programme were markedly more satisfied with their ability to work with children, to work with colleagues, to work with members of the community, and to maintain a friendly disposition than were teachers in a non-CBTE programme. Taylor and Dale (1971) and Adams and Martray (1980) remarked that beginning teachers who looked back at their teacher training with satisfaction perceived fewer problems.

Taylor and Dropkin (1965) found differences in perceived difficulties between city and suburban beginning teachers in three areas: classroom routines, methods of teaching, and relations with parents, but not for discipline. Taylor and Dale (1971) indicated that beginning teachers in schools with children from deprived families and neighbourhoods experienced more problems with discipline and with individual children. Lörcher et al. (1974) showed that the number of problems did not vary with variables such as the size of the school, the composition of the teaching staff (with respect to age and gender), and the socioeconomic environment; however, it did vary with the variables "class size" and the "number of children of immigrants." Perceptions of teaching satisfaction for the job were significantly higher for suburban teachers and teachers with "all white classes" than for teachers in inner-city settings (Teague, 1972). The "philosophy of the school" in which the beginning teacher worked (Williams, 1976) and "the friendliness of the teaching staff" (Taylor & Dale, 1971) had no relations with the experienced problems.

In summary, the results are diverse and difficult to interpret and interrelate within a coherent framework. Many clues related to variable selection are given. However, comprehensive studies that try to interrelate characteristics of training, beginning teachers, and school settings are needed:

> One of the most glaring omissions is the absence of studies which relate differences in the characteristics of the beginning teachers to their receptivity to certain forms of training and to the kinds of problems they have. Another glaring deficiency is the failure to relate the characteristics of the setting in which the teacher begins to teach or learns to teach to the kinds of problems they have or do not have. (McDonald & Elias, 1983, p. 4)

Problems of Beginning Teachers as Viewed by Principals

Class discipline got a high priority in principals' reports. First, many parents view the principal as a person who is primarily responsible for the discipline at school. Second, successes in teaching is often seen in terms of discipline. In the study by Taylor and Dale (1971) 73% of the principals in secondary schools and 53% of the principals in primary schools reported that beginning teachers had problems with classroom discipline. The problem of discipline also had high priority in the perceptions of the principals in the studies by Anderson (1963), Penrod (1974), and Tisher et al. (1979). The priority of the principals might affect the working conditions of the beginning teachers. McIntosh (1976) stated in her observational study that "beginning teachers see principals as wanting them to tighten up on rules, to value tidiness, to use basal readers, and to do plenty of testing" (p. 3193). However, the study by Thatcher (1980) seemed to contradict this statement. In that study, which used a questionnaire with six problem questions, principals were asked to determine the criteria they felt important when evaluating first-year teachers. These principals rated "the ability to care, love, and work with children" as the single most important criterion. This result might be affected by social desirability. Myers (1967) found that administrators considered problems with classroom procedures and management as the major causes of unsuccessful teachers. Vittetoe (1977) noted that when supervisors were asked to identify one or two overriding causes for failure, they named the following characteristics: lack of control, personality clash, immaturity, lack of organization, and lack of confidence.

Besides class discipline, beginning teachers, according to their principals, primarily had problems with dealing with differences between students, motivating students, teaching slow learners, organizing classes, assessing students' progress, and devising schemes of work. The studies by Anderson (1962), Penrod (1974), York (1967), Williams (1976), Taylor and Dale (1971), and Tisher et al. (1979) revealed great similarities between the problems experienced by beginning teachers and the problems of beginning teachers as perceived by principals. Williams (1976) found a correlation of .56 between the perceptions of problem areas experienced by beginning teachers and their principals' perceptions. Grantham (1961) and Fitzgerald (1972) on the other hand, reported considerable differences in the perceptions of problems between principals and beginning teachers.

Problems of Experienced Teachers

Not all the problems in Table II are exclusively problems of beginning teachers. Experienced teachers also have difficulties with several of the identified problem areas.

Schuh (1962) found that Germany primary school teachers with more than 10 years of experience were hindered by the following "disturbing factors" (in rank order): too large classes, an unsatisfying social position, lack of interest from parents, secret negative educational influences, discipline problems, extraschool obligations, inadequate teaching materials.

In Niemann's (1970) study regarding German primary and secondary teachers, teachers who were satisfied with their working conditions complained above all about the many administrative duties, about too large classes, about the many hours they had to work, and about inadequate equipment and teaching materials. The teachers who were not so satisfied with their working conditions complained above all about conflicts among the teaching staff, conflicts with the school administration, and undisciplined students.

In the study by Mollo, Guyard, and Leclerc-Rodriquez (1966) with regard to French teachers, the main problems were too large classes, the absence of adequate materials, and the overloaded teaching task.

Koontz (1963), Olander and Farrell (1970), Dunn (1972), and Pharr (1974) revealed the following main problems of American teachers: motivating students, lack of motivational assistance from the school, finding time for individual and remedial work and counseling, adapting instruction to the needs of slow learners, time-consuming routine demands, and teacher-parent relationships. Koontz found no relationships between the amount of perceived problems and the variables age, experience, and additional professional training. The size of the school seemed to have little relation to the general incidents of problems.

Salaries, poor human relations among staff, inadequate building and equipment, high teaching load, training inadequacies, and large classes were the major areas of dissatisfaction of English elementary and secondary teachers (Rudd & Wiseman, 1962).

In summary, a number of the problems of beginning teachers (see Table II) were also problems of experienced teachers. These problems are listed here to illustrate that not only beginners experience problems and that these problems are not linked solely with the entrance into the profession.

Work Satisfaction of Beginning Teachers

Although beginning teachers reported many problems in their first year(s) of teaching, they were not discontented with their working conditions. In the studies by Thompson (1971), Taylor and Dale (1971), Edmonds and Bessai (1979), Tisher et al. (1979), Broeders (1980), and deVoss and Dibella (1981), more than 80% of the beginning teachers were satisfied with their school (samples from different countries).

More than half the beginning teachers (56%) in the Bouchard and Hull (1970) study said that they wanted to stay at the same school, and 71% reported that they would again choose a teaching career (5% not). Regarding satisfaction with their work, 75% noted, "satisfaction depends on one's ability to motivate students to learning." In the studies by Miller (1971) and deVoss and Dibella (1981), components of satisfaction of beginning secondary teachers were opportunity to work with children, constantly learning about teaching, enjoyment in teaching the subject, doing something worthwhile, vacations/working conditions.

Summary of Findings

This review presented the results of 83 studies that have appeared since 1960 on the perceived problems of beginning teachers in their first year(s) of teaching. The eight most frequently perceived problems were (in rank order) classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, relationships with parents, organization of class work, insufficient materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. There was a great correspondence between the problems of beginning elementary teachers and beginning secondary teachers, although the rank order of these problems varied a little between the two groups. Classroom discipline was by far the most serious problem. Although some studies indicated that the beginning teacher would gradually master this problem, for many beginning teachers it was a great difficulty.

Studies in the sixties and seventies showed no great differences in perceived problems. The problems that were reported in these studies showed great correspondence with those found in the literature since 1930 (cf. Johnston, 1978; Williams, 1976).

In the perceptions of the principals, problems with classroom discipline, dealing with individual differences, the motivating of students, and the effective use of methods were the main problems of beginning teachers.

Beyond a Mere Inventory of Problems

In spite of the general agreement on the kind of problems beginning teachers experience, it appears that these findings are too general in that they do not consider the various teacher characteristics or individual differences which may influence teachers' perceptions and performance. Nor do they identify and describe the context so that we can understand how environments with varying supports and challenges affect the beginning teacher. Recently several approaches have been developed to look more carefully at the process of becoming a teacher. Some of these approaches, labeled *teacher development*, present frameworks for a more comprehensive understanding of the problems beginning teachers experience. They provide a conceptualization of individual differences among teachers that relates to such questions as becoming a teacher, personal effectiveness, and developing a professional identity. From these approaches the problems of beginning teachers may be regarded as necessary transitional states along the road to higher levels of performance. At the same time, these approaches provide some guidance in designing interventions for enhancing the developmental process.

Developmental Stages of Concerns

The first approach involves the empirically constructed theory of teacher development by Fuller and her colleagues (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975). Integrating the existing research on teachers' concerns over time with the research on the perceived problems of student teachers, beginning teachers, and experienced teachers, she hoped to find "teaching phases" which could help teacher educators in choosing more appropriate training programmes.

The most recent description (Fuller & Bown, 1975) posits three distinguishable kinds and stages of concerns that are characteristic of teachers. The first phase involves survival concerns. These are concerns about one's adequacy and survival as a teacher, class control, being liked by pupils, and being evaluated. The second phase includes teaching situation concerns. These are concerns about limitations and frustrations in the teaching situation, methods and materials, and mastery of skills within the teaching learning situation. The third phase reflects concerns about pupils, their learning, their social and emotional needs, and relating to pupils as individuals.

From a developmental perspective, the early self-oriented concerns are characterized as less mature and desirable than the later pupil-oriented concerns. Fuller also believes that later concerns cannot emerge until earlier concerns are resolved. The experience of becoming a teacher involves coping with all three stages. Addressing the concerns during teacher preparation and the early in-service period will probably increase feelings of adequacy, if what is taught is consonant with teachers' needs and matched to the dominant concerns (cf. Taylor, 1975).

Data collected by Adams, Hutchinson, and Martray (1980) and Adams and Martray (1981) in a developmental study during student teaching and first-, third-, and fifth-year teaching supported Fuller's theory. Self-concerns decreased in magnitude from student teaching through fifth-year teaching, while teacher task concerns as related to instruction increased with experience. However, task concerns as related to discipline and teachers' concerns with the impact of teaching on pupils did not differ across experience levels; they remained the highest of all the concerns. The researchers ascribe this finding to the fact that teachers feel they should be highly concerned with the impact of teaching on pupils. In the study by Sitter and Lanier (1982), the five participating student teachers in an alternative teacher education programme experienced concerns similar to those detailed by Fuller. They did not, however, experience them in a particular sequence. They did not resolve one concern before moving to the next, but dealt with them simultaneously. These results suggest an extension to Fuller's work.

Fuller's main contribution to teacher education is that she has given us a more adequate conceptualization of the problems experienced by teachers in that it provides information that is more personally and situationally specific. At the same time, the stages of concerns can be viewed as a basis for conceptualizing programmes of teacher education (cf. Ryan & Phillips, 1982).

The Cognitive Developmental Framework

A second approach to the study of teacher career development addresses the teacher as an adult learner. It is based on the theories and concepts of cognitive development which assume that human development results from changes in cognitive structures. The quality of the internal, mediating, cognitive process varies by age and stages of development. The cognitive developmental approach draws theories and ideas from the studies of Piaget in cognitive development, of Kohlberg in moral decisionmaking, of Loevinger in ego development, of Hunt in conceptual development, and of Perry in epistemological and ethical development. All posit a sequence of cognitive structures, or stages, which are organized in an invariant, hierarchical sequence from less complex to more complex (Oja, 1981; Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983).

Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) present a review of the work from a developmental perspective. They present evidence supporting the relationships between stages and different behaviors: Persons judged at higher stages of development function more complexly, possess a wider repertoire of behavioral skills, perceive problems more broadly, and can respond more accurately and empathetically to the needs of others. Studies of teachers also support this finding. Research on teacher effectiveness indicates that teachers at higher cognitive developmental levels function better in the classroom and may be more flexible, stress tolerant, adaptive, and better able to assume multiple perspectives and to apply a greater variety of teaching strategies and coping behaviours than teachers at lower cognitive developmental levels (cf. Glassberg, 1979; Hunt & Joyce, 1981; Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983).

Based on the idea that teachers at higher developmental stages are more effective in managing classrooms, educational programmes have been created to promote such development (Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980; Oja, 1981). The follow-up study by Glassberg (1980), involving 13 first-year teachers who had participated 1 year earlier in a student teaching experience designed to promote their psychological maturity, provides an example of the contribution of the cognitive developmental approach to the study of beginning teachers' experiences.

Beginning teachers at different developmental stages perceived and processed classroom problems in different ways. Beginning teachers at lower stages viewed themselves as defensive and unable to successfully motivate students and stated that the administration of the school should assume responsibility for discipline in the classroom. Beginning teachers at higher stages of development emphasized the importance of respect, of being flexible and tolerant, of communicating empathy, the necessity of understanding individual differences, and the desire to respond in a manner that facilitates the academic and personal growth of students. The responses of the beginning teachers in the clinical self-reports suggested that stages of development may be an important factor in determining the beginning teacher's perceptions of classroom events. It appeared that teachers who were able to adapt to the personal and professional demands of the teaching role experienced a variety of new roles and responsibilities which, they felt, enhanced self-concept and increased feelings of competence and autonomy. Glassberg's study is important because it indicates that a better understanding of developmental differences among teachers may help us better understand the structure and content of teachers' problems.

The Teacher Socialization Framework

The socialization approach to the process of becoming a teacher examines the changes in the social person. It is focused on the interplay between individuals' needs, capabilities, intentions, and institutional constraints. Often used stages of change are compliance, identification and internalization, or initiation, internalization, and evolution (cf. Bayer, 1978; McArthur, 1981).

The studies on attitude changes during student teaching and the first years of teaching, discussed earlier, can all be situated within the framework of teacher socialization. Given the ambiguity evident in much of the research cited above on shifts in attitudes, future research on the beginning teacher and the process of beginning to teach should place a high priority on description of teachers and on the contexts in which they work (cf. Johnston & Ryan, 1980; Tabachnick et al., 1983). Two examples will be discussed here.

In a longitudinal study of 11 beginning secondary teachers, Gehrke (1976, 1981) sought to generate concepts of the way beginning teachers adapt the teacher role to meet their own needs (role personalization) while being socialized to the role demanded by others. Three interrelated categories of teacher personalization emerged from the data: needs, perceptions, and behaviours. Four specific needs were most salient during early role transition: need for respect, need for liking, need for belonging, and need for a sense of competence. These basic needs affected the perception of the beginning teachers of self, role, and others, which in turn affected the behaviours they chose in enacting the role of teacher. The three categories of needs, perceptions, and behaviours could be conceived of in a hierarchical fashion. The teachers' needs formed the first level of the model, the teachers' perceptions the second level, and the teachers' role-personalizing behaviours the third level.

In a 2-year longitudinal study Tabachnick et al. (1983) studied the development of teacher perspectives. Teacher perspectives were defined as the ways teachers think about their work and the ways in which they give meaning to these beliefs by their actions in classrooms. During the second phase of their study, they followed four of the original group of student teachers into their first year of teaching. To understand the degree to which the four beginning teachers conformed to institutional demands, they used the concept of "social strategy" developed by Lacey (1977). Three distinct social strategies were identified: (a) "internalized adjustment, in which the individual complies with the constraints and believes that the constraints of the situation are for the best"; (b) "strategic compliance, in which the individual complies with the authority figure's definition of the situation and the constraints of the situation but retains private reservations about them"; and (c) "strategic redefinition of the situation implies that change is brought about by individuals who do not possess the formal power to do so. They achieve change by causing or enabling those with formal power to change their interpretation of what is happening in the situation" (Lacey, 1977, pp. 72–73). These strategies proved useful in the study by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1983). Three of the four teachers attempted to redefine the range, in their view, of desirable behaviours in their schools (e.g., in relation to teacher-pupil relationships, curricular goals, discipline, school rules). Two of the three "strategic redefiners" were successful in their efforts. One did it covertly and subtly within the classroom walls, the other openly in plain view of her colleagues and principal and under strong pressures to conform but with support of the parents. The other redefiner failed because of lack of support from colleagues, the rejecting and disruptive responses of the pupils, and own feelings of despair. One beginning teacher adjusted to the dominant norms in the school at the level of both values and behaviours (internalized adjustment). Important influences on the development of the perspectives and the adaptation of these four beginning teachers to institutional regularities were the strength of the perspectives; coping skills and political sensitivity; the degree of contradiction between formal and informal school cultures; the personal or direct control of the principals; and the reactions of colleagues, pupils, and parents to teachers. "The most pervasive and powerful factor in determining the level of institutional constraints in all the schools was technical control exerted through the timing of instruction, the curriculum and curriculum materials, the architecture of the school" (Tabachnick et al., 1983, p. 72). This study suggests that beginning teachers can give some direction to the strength and quality of their socialization into teaching. Given the extremely small number of subjects in this study, further research is definitely needed to determine the extent to which the concepts used are appropriate and valid.

Comparison of the Frameworks

Even though the three frameworks for looking at the development of becoming a teacher draw their concepts and ideas from different sources, they all try to explain changes in individuals. The frameworks of developmental concerns and cognitive developmental theories try to explain changes in individuals from some end state. They provide a description of changes the individual must go through and the mechanisms by which change occurs. Problems at one stage of development may be overcome by progression to the next stage. The developmental constructs provide tools to explain individual differences among teachers and why some teachers at a certain level may experience more problems than other teachers. Also, they may be useful to teacher educators and supervisors. Accurate description of changes would provide a way of categorizing teachers according to how they think and what capacities they do and do not have at various stages. This categorization could be helpful in designing instructional strategies and induction programmes (cf. Feiman & Floden, 1980; Floden & Feiman, 1981).

Because the sequence of changes in the develomental approaches is primarily considered to be self-directed and dominated by psychological concepts, the developmental framework must be supplemented by the socialization framework:

> Teacher education programs, virtually since their inception, have been dominated by psychological considerations emphasizing human development, learning, and teaching methods; they have slighted sociological, anthropological, and cultural phenomena, and especially the actual functioning of the school as a social system within a larger cultural context. . . . The future teacher is not prepared, then, with the expectation that he or she will take an active role in school-wide educational improvement processes. (Goodlad, 1983, p. 44)

In the teacher socialization framework, attention is given to changes in the context of institutional settings. Lacey's (1977) concepts of social strategy may provide explanations of under which conditions beginning teachers may experience problems and how to solve them. At the same time it could be hypothesized that these social strategies may be connected with certain cognitive developmental stages. The "internalized adjustment" beginning teacher in the study by Tabachnick et al. (1983) may be categorized at the Conformist stage of ego development, and the three "strategic redefiners" may be categorized at the Conscientious/Individualistic and Autonomous stage. But this connection needs further investigation. The concepts used by Gehrke may be linked to Maslow's (1970) or Porter's (1961) hierarchy-of-needs theory. This theory suggests that the driving force that causes an individual to join an organization, stay in it, and work toward its goal, is actually a hierarchy of needs. When the lowest order of needs is satisfied, a higher order need appears, and, because it has the greater potency at the time, this higher order need causes the individual to attempt to satisfy it (Owens, 1981). Needs such as security, affiliation, and self-esteem must be satisfied first before beginning teachers can behave as autonomous or self-actualized persons and respond more adequately to the realities of their circumstances in order to perform a successful and satisfying job.

Induction Programmes and Provisions

The difficulties associated with the first year of teaching point to the need of a specialized form of in-service training. In several countries, resources have been made available to improve the mode of new teachers' entry to teaching. The term *teacher induction* generally is used to refer to this entry and to the planned support the new teachers receive as it occurs (Tisher, 1980). Though the need for help is recognized, formal programmes for the induction of teachers are not implemented on a large scale. Yarger (1982b) presents several impediments to induction programme development: (a) lack of institutional responsibility for such programmes; (b) the public response to improving teaching appears to be embedded in competency tests rather than in training programmes; (c) politic power struggle in teacher education precludes the luxury of induction programme development; (d) logistical considerations; and (e) lack of financial support (cf. Johnston, 1981).

Information on programmes that have been established comes from the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. (Some countries, like West Germany, have a prolonged internship that is related to full licensing.) The nature of many induction activities in these countries has been documented (Board of Education, Queensland, 1981; Bolam, 1981; Bolam, Baker, & McMahon, 1979; Howey & Bents, 1979; Johnston, 1981; McDonald, 1982).

Common induction practices are provision of printed materials about employment conditions and school regulations, orientation visits to the school before the start of the first year, released time, group meetings between beginning teachers for emotional support, consultations with experienced teachers, the assignment of an experienced teacher as a helping teacher, conferences/workshops on specific topics, reductions in teaching load, conferences with supervisors, opportunities to observe, and team teaching.

Relatively little research has been done on the effects of such programmes. The evaluation data that does exist does little to illuminate the superiority of any one provision over another, or the nature of the impact of specific induction practices on the development of teachers or pupil achievement (Hall, 1982; Tisher, 1982). In this respect it is akin to much research on in-service teacher education (cf. Yarger, 1982a). The research that has been done is largely characterized by reported experiences of beginning teachers. This research indicates that beginning teachers are, by and large, satisfied with formal induction programmes, which they rate as "helpful, good, or valuable." An example is the Teacher Induction Pilot Schemes (TIPS) project which has been executed in the United Kingdom (1973–1979) (Bolam, 1981; Bolan et al. 1979). However, the economic crisis and the dramatic drop of the number of beginning teachers resulted in the postponement of the introduction of a national scheme for induction in the United Kingdom.

Ryan (1982) states quite rightly that "there is more to induction than the sleepless night and bruised ego of the beginning teacher." But, in a time of economic recession, declining enrollments of students and beginning teachers, and reorganization of teacher training, it may be difficult to implement induction programmes.

Discussion

The majority of the reviewed studies used the questionnaire. In the sampled studies beginning teachers were asked to indicate if a certain kind of problem was indeed experienced as a problem. From the given alternatives the beginning teachers marked the alternative of their choice (e.g., "no problem—a minor problem—a medium problem—a major problem" in the study by Williams, 1976). Although one may conclude from this procedure that the results represent really experienced problems, one cannot exclude the possibility that the reported problems had only a remote relationship with the real problems of the beginning teachers and might not hamper their functioning at all. For instance, a beginning teacher might complain about the inadequate school equipment, physical conditions, materials and supplies, while in fact it might not be a personal problem and it might not hinder the beginning teacher in the instructional process. The investigators did not distinguish between "complaining about" and "true experience," although this is necessary for a proper understanding of this topic. Future research should define "problem" more carefully.

Differences in methodological qualities have been taken for granted:

> The weaknesses in methodology are many: samples of convenience, weak data-gathering procedures, poor categorical descriptions of problems, the most rudimentary types of quantitative analyses, and a lack of comparisons and contrasts among programs and among places where teachers first begin to teach. (McDonald & Elias, 1983, p. 4).

Results of both strongly and weakly designed studies have been used. This method can be justified, because this review is meant to delineate only global trends. Besides, this method made it possible to enlarge the data base substantially. Furthermore, the results of weakly designed studies are not necessarily invalid: "In fact, many weak studies can add up to a strong conclusion" (Glass, 1977). Despite methodological deficiencies, there is a remarkable homogeneity in the conclusions of the cited studies: "Whether a study has a careful design or a poor design, whether the sample is small or large, whether the teachers queried are students, beginners, or experienced teachers, the conclusions are remarkably similar" (McDonald & Elias, 1983, p. 4).

The reviewed studies varied with regard to national and regional school systems, teacher preparation programmes, and the working environments of the beginning teachers. Despite these differences the problems of beginning teachers in general were alike. This suggests that these problems cannot be attributed solely to personal characteristics of the beginning teachers, to situational characteristics of the work place, and to deficiencies in teacher training. Of course, these factors must be acknowledged, but the results also point to factors beyond those of the individual person, school, teacher training programme, and work place. Factors inherently connected with the task of teaching a group of students, with teaching as a profession and with the influence of that profession upon the person of the teacher, must be considered too, if one looks for solutions to these problems.

Many authors of the sampled studies could not resist the temptation to blame teacher education for the problems of the beginning teachers. This is an unjustified accusation. Of course, teacher training has several known deficiencies (cf. Schwanke, 1980). Criticism is justified with regard to the (too large) tension between theory and practice, the accentuation of the academic subject matter knowledge instead of the skills of instruction of the school subjects, the teaching of isolated bits of information, the restricted student teaching experience, and loose control of the development of practical knowledge and skills in the public schools. Some of these deficiencies may be overcome by restructuring teacher education according to Smith's (1980) design for a School of Pedagogy, or according to Bush's (1980) plea for adding the beginning years to the initial preparatory period, thus substantially lengthening the period of training teachers, enabling newcomers and "old timers" to collaborate as colleagues in school improvement. Most of the criticism of teacher training is not justified, because it arises from an incorrect interpretation of the function of theory. To expect that practice could be deduced from or founded and governed by theory (see, e.g., Müller-Fohrbrodt et al., 1978, p. 137) is a mistaken belief. Theory cannot provide the teachers with how-to-act directions for specific situations; theory has primarily a critical and reflective function and is only constructive in a limited way (König, 1977).

Furthermore, it is unjustified to think that teacher education could anticipate all the future problematic situations of beginning teachers, not to say simulate these situations. We agree with König (1977) that it is dangerous to argue that each difficulty in the first year(s) of the teaching career must be a starting point for training activities and that teacher education must be reduced to those things that can be directly applied.

It is hardly ever emphasized that many problems arise from the job of teaching as a profession. According to Lortie (1975) the teaching profession has no codified body of knowledge and skills: "No way has been found to record and crystallize teaching for the benefit of beginners" (p. 58). The effect is that own experience, in the form of learning while doing, is seen as the most important source of the acquisition of knowledge and skills. This status of the profession has consequences for teacher education and entrance into the profession. Teacher education is characterized by little competition and selection, and the educational programme, compared with other professions, is not very complex with regard to intellectual demands and organizational features. Entry into the profession is sudden: From one day to the next the beginning teacher has the same responsibility as a teacher with 40 years of service. The beginning teacher often is thrown in at the deep end (the "sink-or-swim" or Robinson Crusoe approach; Lortie, 1966). This is often reinforced by the cellular organization of the school, so that contacts between beginning teachers and their experienced colleagues are hampered during the school day (Lortie, 1975). When dealing with difficulties of beginning teachers one cannot overlook the status of teaching as an occupation.

Future Research Direction

Even though we know what problems trouble beginning teachers, we still know little about the person-specific and situation-specific nature of these problems. Delineation of the kinds of problems and their relationships to the characteristics of teachers in the various types of schools and classrooms has hardly occurred. Most studies used the questionnaire or the interview to collect data about the perceived problems of beginning teachers. This procedure is useful for listing these problems, but it gives little or no information about the features of educational situations that teachers experience as problematic, about the psychological dimensions of meaning underlying these situations, and about the significant personal characteristics of beginning teachers which interact with these situations. Research based on an interactive paradigm, which takes into account person-environment interactions, might provide that much-needed information (Hunt, 1975; Magnusson, 1981). According to the familiar Lewinian model, this paradigm views behaviour as a function of the person and the environment. The B-P-E paradigm does not only propose to study the behaviour as an interactive function of the person and the environment and to describe the coordination of a person's cognitive orientation with the degree of structure in the environment; it also tries to view the present need for structure of the person on a developmental continuum along which growth toward independence and less need for structure is the long-term objective (Hunt, 1975). This view is congruous with the cognitive developmental framework described earlier.

Also needed are in-depth, comprehensive developmental studies of the beginning teacher. Little is known about the cognitive and affective processes that characterize the transition into teaching. The studies by Fuller, Glassberg, Gehrke, and Tabachnick and Zeichner may be regarded as first promising attempts.

But we also need systematic study of variations in forms of training and assistance, and the relationships of these different training experiences with the personality characteristics of beginning teachers and with the social settings in which they work, in order to understand how much help, support, and training the teachers need (McDonald & Elias, 1983).

Finally, we need a comparative analysis of the problems of beginning teachers in different countries. That way, it would be possible to sort out what kinds of problems are specific to a particular country with its own socialization/culture of teachers.

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Chapter 3:

Preparing Mentor Teachers

Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

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Preparing Mentor Teachers

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Each chapter of *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators* informs the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist the facilitator in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with the facilitator as the primary audience.

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Introduction

Mentor teachers are exemplary classroom teachers who are able to model excellent instructional practice. As instructional leaders, you, as mentors, will be asked to:

- help acclimate new teachers to the culture of their schools and communities;
- serve as their sponsor, coach, and guide;
- provide them with objective feedback about their teaching;
- assist them in expanding their instructional repertoire; and
- enable them to become reflective about their students' learning.

The role of the mentor teacher is both challenging and complex. It demands particular support and assistance, if you are to be successful. This chapter describes the skills and strategies you will need to understand and be able to apply as you work with new teachers.

After reading this chapter (*see Activity 3-1, "Preparing Mentor Teachers," on page 3-41*) and engaging in the activities that are included, you should be able to:

- understand and articulate the role of the mentor;
- recognize the attributes that are essential in building a successful mentor/new teacher relationship;
- respond to issues of diversity as they relate to your mentor/new teacher relationship;
- understand and apply the principles of effective teaching;
- utilize a variety of classroom observation data collection techniques;
- conduct effective pre- and post-observation conferences;
- employ the instructional leadership style that best responds to the developmental needs of the new teachers with whom you are working; and
- resolve conflict through a variety of strategies.

While this chapter focuses primarily on mentor skill development, there is a strong ethical connotation in its message. Simply stated, there is a high level of expectation and commitment that you must be willing to accept as you take on your role. Professional growth and development is a very challenging and rewarding process that both you and new teachers will experience within your particular stages of career development.

Building a Relationship

At the heart of mentoring is a positive relationship between you, experienced educators, and new teachers. A supportive, encouraging, trusting relationship is essential to the success of the induction experience. You, as mentors, assume a number of roles and practice many skills to make this happen. Your understanding of yourselves and others will affect your ability to support and sponsor new teachers. As *supporters*, you must establish trust and rapport, build new teachers' confidence, and help them become more self-aware and responsible for their own development and growth. As *sponsors*, you acclimate new teachers to the school system, advocate for them in the school setting, and connect them to their new colleagues. Three questions will guide our discussion on building relationships with new teachers:

- What is the impact of understanding yourself and others?
- How do you support new teachers?
- How do you sponsor new teachers?

What Is the Impact of Understanding Yourself and Others?

Understanding ourselves and others is a complex skill. Mentoring relies on the successful interaction and communication between two individuals and the quality of the relationship they build and maintain over time. Building a strong relationship depends on accurate self-perception, interpersonal skills, and the effective manner in which you utilize those skills.

At the self level, you should:

- know your individual strengths and weaknesses, beliefs and attitudes, and preferences and prejudices that will help or hinder communication with others (*see Activity 3-2, "All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories," on page 3-45*);
- recognize that gaining self-knowledge is a complex process that occurs over a lifetime and depends highly on interactions with others; and
- have a predisposition to self-analysis and reflection as a means of stimulating personal growth.

At the interpersonal level, you should know about:

- adult development;
- the change process;
- the dynamics of diversity and their impact on people's behavior and values; and
- ways to analyze yourself and others.

Understanding how people develop, learn, react, and change facilitates the accurate reading of situations and enables you to support new teachers in their personal and professional growth. Knowing what new teachers think, feel, and believe is a continuous effort of making predictions about their behaviors, while interacting with them. In a similar manner, you -- as experienced teachers -- are able to assess classroom dynamics by simultaneously analyzing, judging, predicting, and redirecting the course of action. You will need to draw upon this knowledge and the multiple tools that assist you in acquiring it to provide a new teacher with appropriate supports and challenges (*see Activity 1-3, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1," on page 1-59; Activity 1-4, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 2," on page 1-65; Activity 1-5, "Generation of Developmental Sequence of Observable Teacher Behaviors," on page 1-85; and Activity 1-7, "Teacher Stages of Development: Matching Supports and Challenges," on page 1-95*). This careful appraisal of interactions with a new teacher will impact the quality of the mentoring relationship and inform and direct the kinds of support strategies a new teacher needs.

Real or perceived differences play an important role in the way we read, analyze, make predictions, and judge other people. Differences in age, gender, ability, culture, language, race, religion, political orientation, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, and national origin can stand in the way of understanding, communicating, and building a relationship with a new teacher. Erickson (1975) and Abramowitz and Dokecki (1977) suggest that similarities in social class, cultural communication style, intelligence, temperament, and social identity are more significant than race or gender in influencing the outcomes of interactions (*see Activity 3-3, "Understanding and Celebrating Diversity," on page 3-53*). In cases in which commonalities are not readily identified, the more information you have about the other person, the more valid and accurate the predictions will be. *Activity 3-4, "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor," on page 3-57,* will enhance your awareness and understanding of the role culture plays in your daily interaction and communication with others.

Time is a critical factor in emerging relationships and in learning to understand the other person. There might be situations in which differences between you and a new teacher are not resolved in a timely manner. Therefore, the kind of trust and rapport needed for an effective mentoring climate does not evolve easily. Under these circumstances, both you and the new teacher should recognize the need to reach an agreement to work harder to resolve the issues and move forward or to find a more compatible relationship. Preferably, you will both view this situation as an opportunity for learning and growth rather than an obstacle.

Many of the tools and knowledge that are helpful in understanding others have been discussed in previous chapters. In addition to the activities already cited from Chapters 1 and 2, you might want to look at:

- *Activity 1-2, "Becoming Acquainted with Stage Theories," on page 1-55,* which provides a vehicle through which mentors and new teachers can become acquainted with the progression of adult development and assess their positions on any of the progressions;
- *Activity 1-14, "Stages of Concerns about Mentoring," on page 1-123,* which helps identify mentors' concerns about their new role and teaches them to consider how new teachers' concerns about the teaching role can be identified and addressed;
- *Activity 1-19, "Facing Diversity," on page 1-141,* which helps mentors understand the issues and realities of teaching in pluralistic schools and community environments; and
- *Activity 2-6, "Teachers' Needs," on page 2-55,* which helps mentors identify similarities and differences between the needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers.

Mentors can facilitate relationship building in the face of diversity. As social beings in a pluralistic society, we come in contact with many people whose personal background and experiences are different from ours. Think for a minute about the people with whom you interact every day. Each teacher, administrator, student, and parent who crosses your path is a unique individual with a different cultural orientation and life experience.

As the population in schools becomes more diverse, teachers and students need to develop positive means of interpreting and responding to issues of diversity. As a mentor, you may find yourself in situations that require a degree of knowledge, expertise, and understanding of diversity, in addition to knowledge of developmental stages and learning styles. For new teachers whose preparation has included little or no training in teaching diverse students, any classroom situation that includes a diverse student population of varying racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic backgrounds and abilities can intensify their feelings of frustration, confusion, and a sense of incompetence. In addition, you may have had little training in issues surrounding diversity. While knowledge about diversity is helpful if you are to challenge assumptions about your own belief system, it is not enough to help you and a new teacher respond to it in the classroom. A study conducted by the National Center for Research on Teacher Learning (1992) concluded that knowledge about the cultures of various groups is only helpful when the connection between the information and its relevance to effective teaching practice is explicitly made. Mentors can help new teachers make those connections by "think(ing) strategically about learners -- about their differences and their differing needs, about the interaction of these learners with subject matter and the particular school and community context, and about ways to engage them with important substantive ideas" (National Center for Research on Teacher Learning 1992, 4). Through classroom observation, data collected and shared can help new teachers bridge the gap between the challenge of diversity and meeting the particular needs of each learner.

Mentors and new teachers can assess intercultural encounters. It is easier said than done to take off the lenses through which we perceive the world and recognize the hidden assumptions that constrain our thinking. Avery (1992) explains that when we jump to conclusions, we have generally relied too quickly on our own personal and cultural paradigms. She adds that things that do not fit our frame of reference tend to be judged as ignorant, lacking in intelligence, or deviant.

Mentors and new teachers can become more aware of their own assumptions about differences, even when unconsciously held. Discussion among groups of mentors and new teachers may allow these hidden beliefs to rise to the surface and identify convictions that have no basis in fact (*see Activity 1-17, "Exploring Diversity, Part 1," on page 1-135; Activity 1-18, "Exploring Diversity, Part 2," on page 1-137; and Activity 3-4, "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor," on page 3-57*).

How Do You Support New Teachers?

Your role as a mentor is that of supportive guide and encouraging coach to a new teacher. While sharing personal insights and practices, you encourage a new teacher's individuality, innovation, and exploration through reflective practice. You help build a new teacher's confidence in his or her teaching abilities by celebrating successes and providing a realistic perspective on his or her strengths and limitations. You serve as a resource and guide to other resources. Through responsible, consistent, and open-minded attitudes and behaviors, you will gradually establish a trusting relationship with a new teacher that will allow both of you to explore your profession in a free and useful exchange of ideas.

Supportive mentoring behavior is nonjudgmental, open-minded, reflective, respectful, empathetic, and realistically optimistic. These descriptors have almost instant recognition among educators, although few could recall the primary sources (Sparks 1986; Barnett 1985; Showers 1985; Little 1984; Alphonso and Goldsberry 1982; Joyce and Showers 1982; Glickman 1981; and Goldhammer et al. 1980). These behaviors, originally the foundations of clinical supervision and peer support training programs, have become the criteria for supportive collegial interaction. As such, they are a summary of mentor characteristics. Understanding and application of these characteristics are developed in *Activity 1-13, "Open-Ended Questions," on page 1-121; Activity 3-4, "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor," on page 3-57; Activity 3-5, "Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors," on page 3-67; and Activity 3-24, "More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages," on page 3-209.*

The success or failure of a mentoring relationship hinges on the trust and rapport that are developed early in the relationship. Building trust means developing a sense of safety, openness, and reduced threat on the part of new teachers. It is a process that needs to be sustained throughout the mentoring relationship.

Establishing Clear Expectations Is Critical

A statement of expectations is a collegial agreement between you and the new teacher that says: "What we are doing is important." At your first meeting with a new teacher, you need to be very clear about your expectations for the mentoring relationship (for example, your role and responsibilities, your goals for the mentoring experience, and time restrictions). While expressing a very real interest in a new teacher, expectations should focus on the necessary skills and attitudes required of an effective education professional. Saphier and Gower (1987) identify expectations that are critical to becoming a "skillful teacher" (see **Figure 3.1** on page 3-6). You and the new teacher should talk about these as the focus of your mentoring relationship.

In the initial meeting, consider presenting a draft of your expectations, and ask the new teacher to draft his or her expectations. Presenting expectations in written form is helpful for both parties. Discussion of both sets of expectations becomes a focus of the mentoring relationship.

Expectations have four aspects:

- your statement and compact with the new teacher regarding support, assistance, and personal commitment;
- the new teacher's statement of expectations and compact in the mentoring relationship;
- the scheduling details that will structure the mentoring relationship; and
- the informal agreement with the administration that supports the mentoring commitment.

Activity 3-6, "Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself," on page 3-69 and Activity 3-7, "Setting Expectations," on page 3-71, provide opportunities for you to compose goals and expectations that suit your style and situation.

Part of your role as a mentor is to explain the specific procedures and established traditions of the school that the teacher needs to know. While the first meeting between you and a new teacher should address the teacher's immediate concerns, part of addressing those concerns requires developing a preliminary plan for conferencing and visiting each others' classrooms. You will have discussed a proposed plan of action with the principal, department head, or supervisor of education in advance, and gained support for the expectations for the mentoring relationship. It is important for you and the new teacher to meet together with the principal to share those plans and work out release time, substitute coverage, schedules, or whatever else might be needed. This will alert the new teacher to the procedures for getting things done in this setting.

How Do You Sponsor New Teachers?

There are five things you can do to sponsor new teachers:

- orient them to essential administrative information;
- acclimate them to the new system;
- advocate for them in daily dealings;
- enhance their teaching and instructional management; and
- model collegiality.

Figure 3.1 A Mentor's Expectations for the Mentoring Relationship

These are my expectations for our mentoring relationship. As your mentor:

I will be available to you.

I will help, support, and encourage you in managing and mastering the following areas of school work:

- quality and quantity of work;
- work habits and procedures;
- business and housekeeping routines; and
- interpersonal behavior.

We will work together to solve problems regarding issues that are important to you and issues that are important to me for the development of your career in teaching.

We will treat each other with collegial respect, keeping our commitments to each other, for example, appointments, assignments, and agreed-upon expectations.

I will observe you teaching and provide you with objective data that will help inform your teaching practice.

We will practice reflective teaching and interview each other.

Although I do not have all "the answers," I will help you frame the questions that will lead you to your own answers and questions.

I will share with you and demonstrate what I have learned about teaching.

I will treat everything that transpires in our mentoring relationship with confidentiality, within the reasonable bounds upon which we have agreed.

We will learn from and with each other.

Source: Adapted with permission of Research for Better Teaching from *The Skillful Teacher: Building Your Teaching Skills* by Jon Saphier and Robert Gower. (c) 1987.

When you orient a new teacher to the school, introductions to yourself, the mentoring role, and other school personnel and their responsibilities are needed. A new teacher will have questions about available resources, procedures, and the school facility. The following may prove helpful in addressing these concerns:

- a brief outline of school personnel and their responsibilities;
- a suggested list of procedures to help begin the first day of school;
- a beginning teacher calendar checklist; and
- *Activity 3-8, "The Nitty Gritty: What Do New Teachers Really Need to Know in Our Schools?" on page 3-73,* which will aid the development of a checklist for your school.

Providing essential information is not the only way to help new teachers learn about their new school. Sometimes a bit more subjective view of the situation is in order. The new setting often needs to be interpreted or clarified for newcomers. They may ask questions such as:

- How does this school really work?
- What are its strengths and weaknesses?
- What does it do well?
- Where does it have problems?
- How does its history account for the way it is now?
- How can a new teacher come to understand this new personality?

In order to answer these questions honestly and openly, you may have to admit your biases to newcomers and then encourage them to develop their own opinions. *Activity 3-9, "I'd Like You to Meet . . . : Introducing the School Community," on page 3-83,* is a fun way to help new teachers begin to understand the dynamics of their new setting.

Throughout the year, new teachers' concerns and the support you offer to meet those concerns will vary. *Activity 3-10, "Charting New Teachers' Needs," on page 3-85,* provides a means of collecting data on shifting needs during the year, through an action research project. *Activity 3-11, "A Wrinkle in Time," on page 3-87,* enables you and your colleagues to identify the inhibiting and enabling forces in terms of finding time to support new teachers.

Sometimes new teachers find themselves in predicaments with others: colleagues, administrators, staff, students, parents, or community members. While you can sometimes advise new teachers how to avoid certain problems, part of being a mentor is being available to help new teachers sort out those messy situations which will inevitably occur. The sponsor role means that you advocate for new teachers. It does not mean that you will always agree with them, but it does mean that the new teacher's opportunity to express a point of view must be protected. The politics of a new school can often overwhelm a beginner. New teachers need a place to vent frustrations without being judged. As a sponsor, you ensure a platform from which the new teacher can be heard as well as look out for the new teacher when inappropriate demands are made. You must also attempt to facilitate the resolution of these predicaments or at least put them into a context that a new teacher can understand. The possible problems that can arise are endless, but *Activity 3-26, "In a Jam: How to Advocate for a New Teacher," on page 3-231,* and *Activity 3-27, "Resolving Potential Conflicts," on page 3-237,* will help you experience the role of advocate.

New teachers may come to you with concerns about teaching and instructional management. As a mentor, you may assist them with the following:

- organizing and planning instruction (*see Activity 3-12, "Planning Classroom Lessons," on page 3-89 and Activity 3-13, "'Debriefing' Classroom Lessons," on page 3-93*);
- managing time and managing stress;
- managing a classroom;
- developing a repertoire of instructional strategies;
- identifying and bringing resources into the classroom (for example, use of space, procedures for classroom routines, rules for behavior, consequences and incentives); and
- interacting with and relating to parents.

Many excellent resources are currently available that address these concerns. For that reason, we have not explored these issues in depth here. (Please refer to the resource section at the end of this chapter.)

Finally, you can fulfill the sponsor role by modeling collegiality. New teachers can often learn from watching you interact effectively with administrators, students, parents, and your colleagues. Other avenues that enable you to model collegiality are:

- engaging in joint work with peers, including the new teacher;
- participating in school decision making;
- helping the new teacher choose appropriate goals for professional development;
- sharing your "private stock" of teaching ideas and materials; and
- helping the new teacher prepare for formal evaluation.

Most important is connecting a new teacher to other colleagues who can become invaluable resources. *Activity 3-14, "We're Ready to Help: A Collegial Collection of Resources for New Teachers," on page 3-95,* offers a way that broad collegial connections can be engendered not only for a new teacher, but for the entire teaching staff.

Effective Teaching and Beyond

As you continue to sponsor and support a new teacher, you are enabling that teacher to develop effective teaching practice. This section focuses on effective teaching and delineates the difference between good and effective teaching.

Across the breadth of research regarding effective teaching, there is general agreement on what effective teaching looks like. Learners develop a sense of purpose and excitement, that is nurtured by effective teaching. Ideal teachers are characterized first of all as having a common set of qualities:

- a commitment to their profession through lifelong education and learning;
- an integrity of purpose;
- an honesty in self-assessment of their professional skills;
- a caring for and about their students as persons of value and as learners;
- an ability to work collegially and cooperatively with other learners;
- an ability to use language effectively;
- an understanding of the developmental characteristics of the youngsters they teach;
- a command of their subject and an understanding of the pedagogy of teaching;
- an ability to work with and through the home on behalf of their students; and
- an ability to facilitate the learning of others.

Leinhardt and Smith describe a composite of an ideal teacher as being "knowledgeable, well-organized and a consistent classroom leader who interacts with students, colleagues, and community members purposefully and effectively" (Leinhardt and Smith in Dill 1990, 21).

Berliner points out the distinction between the "good" teacher and the "effective" teacher:

> A teacher who starts . . . on time, provides a review, gives an advance organizer, emphasizes important points, asks higher-order questions throughout, cracks a good joke, and the like, may be judged to be a "good" teacher, whether or not his or her students learn. Good (and poor) teaching and schooling are determined by values and by knowledge of the standards of good practice, independent of effectiveness. The concept of good teaching always requires an understanding of normative behavior, while the concept of effective teaching always requires an understanding of the expected outcomes of instruction. *These concepts need not be mutually exclusive* [italics added] (Berliner 1987, 94).

In this discussion, we will embrace this last notion of nonexclusivity that Berliner refers to, and will summarize research and theory that describe "good" and "effective" teaching and further define how these two descriptions come together to describe excellent teaching. Indeed, it is our premise in this document that we should seek to prepare new teachers to incorporate both "good" and "effective" teaching in order for them to become excellent at their craft.

What Do Excellent Teachers Value and Know?

> When instruction is accompanied by discovery, . . . then it is in sharp distinction from indoctrination, [it] always consists of activities on the part of teachers that cooperate with activities performed by the minds of students engaged in activities (Dill 1990, 162).

Excellent teachers:

- have pedagogical skills, management skills, and extensive content area knowledge. They also exhibit other attitudes and behaviors which mark the practice of their craft.
- do not view learning as a product that they alone can create; rather, they see themselves as facilitating and supporting their students' learning.
- are cognizant of differences in student learning styles and background and, as much as possible, adapt instruction accordingly. These individuals respect and value the cultural and ethnic distinctions that students bring to classroom life and seek to understand their students' perspectives, exhibiting a friendly curiosity about students' cultures of origin and modeling an appreciation of diverse cultures (see section on diversity in Chapter 1).
- value a high sense of self-esteem in themselves, students, and colleagues. They conduct the daily routines and instruction to create a climate supportive of the development of self-esteem (Strother 1985; Hunter 1982).
- demonstrate a mindset of continual professional curiosity, both in subject matter and teaching pedagogy. They have a thorough and extensive knowledge base and are themselves active learners (Dill 1990; Yager and Bonnstetter 1990).

- are thoughtful risk takers and encourage students to do likewise. They are open to "trying out" new and different strategies and approaches to continually refine their practice. With support from others in the school community, excellent teachers formulate questions about their practice. They work with colleagues, utilizing observation and other methods, to answer their questions and make obvious the components of their practice. We are not approaching the millennium in education when teachers may rely on settled practices and standard technologies in their work. They become involved in efforts to invent new practices, develop new materials, and study children's development in collaboration with colleagues and with the support of administrators (Sykes 1988, 467).
- have self-awareness of a style of leadership with which they are most comfortable, as well as a flexibility to the possibilities of "trying on" different styles. They make accommodations for learning, particularly in regard to communication, both verbal and nonverbal.
- are skillful communicators. They achieve maximum clarity in presentation of information to students. Hunter (1982) exhorts the teacher to "present information in language which is clear and unambiguous to students, with examples which highlight the essence of the concept or generalization" (Hunter 1982, 36). Inevitably, effective communication assumes valuing diversity and demonstrating that value. For example, this might be demonstrated by a teacher's awareness and acknowledgment of what verbal and nonverbal cues might mean in other cultures.
- maintain professional interaction, not isolation, among their colleagues. They participate in nonevaluative observation of each other, have conversations about various professional dilemmas or goals, and engage in such collaborative activities as team teaching, action research, and cooperative learning. Excellent teachers recognize the need to contribute to the development of a shared vision of the school, that is, working for a systemic approach to teaching students beyond the individual classroom.

What Do Excellent Teachers Do?

Excellent teachers:

- regard management of classroom life a prerequisite to successful instruction. Hunter (1982), Kounin (1970), and Dill (1990) categorize and make explicit techniques which skillful teachers employ to create an instructionally supportive environment (see **Figure 3.2** on page 3-11).
- consider student ability levels and adjust lesson content, pacing, and practice accordingly. In this classroom, behavior and student understanding of concepts is monitored constantly. This teacher has an extensive repertoire of skills and instructional strategies to adjust to student needs and to sustain motivation (Evertson and Weade 1989; Kounin 1970; Hunter 1982). Extensive subject matter knowledge and in-depth understanding of subject area content is virtually a prerequisite for questioning skills, an essential teaching technique. The excellent teacher also encourages questioning by students as a means of clarifying learned material and assessing student growth.
- use appropriate instructional feedback and assessment strategies. This means learning about and building on current research, for example, regarding student portfolios or authentic assessment and other classroom performance assessment measures that go beyond paper and pencil.

Figure 3.2 Some Characteristics of Excellent Teachers' Instructional and Classroom Management

Author	Characteristics	
Kounin (1970)	• Overlaps -- does several things at once; for example, interacts and monitors • Provides continuity and momentum in lessons -- is well-prepared; keeps the instructional flow, thus signaling students to attend	• Displays with-it-ness -- frequent scanning of room; constantly monitors behavior • Provides variety and challenge in seatwork -- seatwork is a balance of challenge and familiarity
Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980)	• Plans and prepares for beginning the year's activities • Has much practice with classroom rules and procedures • Analyzes classroom tasks • Views classroom tasks from students' perspective	• Sets high standards for student sessions • Monitors student behavior closely • Uses time efficiently • Consistently reinforces and provides feedback • Demonstrates expert student accountability, with high standards • Strives for clarification
Hunter (1982)	• Increases student motivation by providing for: a. student level of concern b. feeling tone -- student c. student success d. student interest in learning task e. feedback to students on their output f. a combination of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation • Gets students to learn (creates anticipatory sets) so that students shift thoughts and focus attention • Matches content difficulty to students' capability	• Models by using examples • Teaches to both sides of the brain • Makes material meaningful • Checks students' understanding • Designs effective practice • Guides practice • Extends thinking • Dignifies errors • Promotes learning • Uses time to achieve more learning • Teaches to remember • Teaches for transfer
Strother (1985)	• Understands students' needs • Has repertoire of motivational strategies and instructional strategies • Possesses knowledge of student learning styles • Adapts to learning styles	• Works effectively with parents and peers; establishes positive teacher/student relationship • Establishes classroom rules and procedures • Is able to problem-solve • Has knowledge of behavior modification techniques
Bain et al. (1989)	• Has high expectations for students • Possesses extensive repertoire of alternative strategies to teach skills	• Is highly efficient regarding classroom behavior • Monitors student progress closely • Uses incentives and rewards to promote learning
Lasley, Lasley, and Ward (1989)	• Uses a variety of instructional strategies • Uses nonverbal cues to reinforce appropriate behavior	• Refers to established rules and procedures to curtail misbehavior
Dill (1990)	• Has awareness of students' developmental level • Formulates questions clearly • Attends to students' responses	• Allows sufficient time for students to respond • Follows through on questions using students' responses as a base • Analyzes tasks to determine what the tasks demand

- reflect on their practice, not only from the perspective of technical correctness, but also from a critical perspective involving the effect of teaching on students' intellectual and emotional well-being (see section on reflective practice in Chapter 1). These teachers make decisions about content and method with a view toward consistency with their philosophical base, "balanc[ing] what is good for the individual with what is necessary in the group" (Sykes 1988, 463). Boyer suggests that "fidelity to a set of values and an uncompromising effort to relate values professed to choices made are essential characteristics of good teaching" (Boyer in Dill 1990, 154).
- focus on student learning. This is demonstrated in the classroom through instruction and classroom management. For example, they maintain momentum by allowing minimum distractions or interruptions, including procedural interruptions such as getting materials from desks or placing headings on worksheets. Procedures are explained and practiced in the beginning of the school year, so attention may be turned to the business of learning as soon as possible.
- respect students, and attempt to understand how students view classroom life. They communicate high expectations and a sense of student accountability. In this classroom, there is an opportunity for all students to participate in classroom discussion, and student work is praised or corrected fairly.

Hence, excellent teachers make decisions regarding their craft based on observed realities, and set the direction for their continuing professional growth. These teachers are committed to a self-determined "fine-tuning" of their craft. For example, teachers might ask themselves:

- Am I spending more instructional time on social studies than science? Is this impacting my students' achievement in science? If so, why? Am I more comfortable teaching social studies? Do I prefer social studies?
- What are my verbal interactions with students? Are they instructional or are most of my communications with my students during class focused on classroom procedures?
- Is my philosophy of teaching reflected in the day-to-day life of my classroom, such as how I allocate time for instruction?

What Are the Implications for New Teachers and Their Mentors?

An extensive knowledge of the elements of excellent teaching by both the mentor and the new teacher will allow for the development of a common professional language. It is a presupposition that you, as mentor teachers, have a thorough and current knowledge of excellent teaching, content, and pedagogy.

A new teacher's ability to reflect on practice is a skill which is acquired as he or she moves along the continuum of the mentoring process. Excellent teaching must become part of a beginning and continuing dialogue among mentors and new teachers. Indeed, the dialogues may serve as an impetus to foster these conversations among all educators in the school community.

As discussed in Chapter 1, mentors and new teachers need to share a common language about what is meant by reflective practice. They must engage in these conversations and do so often. This common language, along with having similar philosophies about teaching, will encourage the mentoring pair to move from "knowing" about their practice to describing their practice.

Mentors must probe into the new teacher's knowledge base of excellent teaching. For example, Saphier and Gower refer to four levels of competence which may describe skill levels of new teachers (see **Figure 3.3** below). The mentor must employ a style of interaction and assistance which will be dependent on the competence and level of awareness the new teacher possesses. Similarly, all teachers must have an awareness of the different learning styles of students, taking into consideration their diverse backgrounds.

Figure 3.3 Johari's Window Model of Competency

	DON'T KNOW	KNOW
CAN'T DO	"MIRACLE" (Unconscious Incompetence)	"THEORY" (Conscious Incompetence)
CAN DO	"MAGIC" (Unconscious Competence)	"COMPETENCE" (Conscious Competence)

Sources: Adapted with permission of Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development from *Mentor Teacher: A Leader's Guide to Mentor Training* by Judith Warren Little and Linda Nelson, eds. (c) 1990; Saphier and Gower, Op. Cit., 3-6.

It is in this latter regard, particularly, that mentors fulfill a most important role in relation to the new teachers they serve. They model the mindset of continuing intellectual exploration, for example, reading educational research journals or attending professional conferences, directing new teachers to sources of information, discussing research with new teachers and its implications for classroom life, and exploring the notion of action research in their school. Mentors become a primary resource for new teachers as they continue their inquiry into research on excellent teaching.

New teachers are more apt to be involved in action research, either in conjunction with their mentor or as individuals, if they see it modeled by their mentor. They are certainly more apt to engage in this activity if encouraged and carried out with the mentor (*see Activity 1-10, "Making Research Real," on page 1-109*). As we have noted previously in Chapter 1, action research -- initiated and carried out by teachers -- sets into motion a cycle of systematic inquiry whereby questions are studied and answered, and new questions are identified. Teachers who participate in action research projects become more flexible in their thinking, more receptive to new ideas, and more able to solve problems as they arise (Grouke, Ovens, and Hargreaves 1986; Pine 1981).

What Are the Implications for Schools?

The process of becoming an excellent teacher is an ongoing journey. While teachers achieve many milestones along the way, they never arrive at a final destination. If this frame of reference is clear within the school organization, it should also be clear for teachers. Regardless of the number of years they have taught, teachers are always in the process of "trying on" new ideas, strategies, or ways of thinking about their craft. For new teachers, most of what they do, plan, and think about each day will be new. For mentors, working with new teachers provides a freshness to their teaching approach and adds a new dimension to their practice.

Excellent teaching is a goal for all schools. However, if teachers are to achieve excellence, they must go through the process of trial and error -- taking risks and reflecting on what worked, what didn't work, and why. The implications for schools as organizations are both complex and simple. First, teachers must have time to talk about teaching. Boles and Troen discuss the need for this time within the context of how teachers make restructuring happen.

> For teachers to remain vital, engaged, and committed [to a quest for excellence], they must have time for dialogue and reflection away from the daily demands of the classroom (Boles and Troen 1992, 54).

Second, school cultures should value risk taking. Success must include knowing why something did not work. A norm for teachers that enables them to share both what did and did not work must exist. This professional ethic should be expressed explicitly and often, particularly by administrators and school board members. This disposition is one you should continually weave into conversations with new teachers. Schools could demonstrate how they value risk taking by altering the evaluation process during the time when a particular innovation is being employed by a teacher. During that period, supervision and observation could exist solely within an assistance mode.

Third, the notion of excellent teaching must be articulated in relationship to student learning outcomes. There is a strong and positive connection between the development of adults and children in schools. For example, positive self-esteem modeled by the adult within the classroom can have a positive effect on the self-esteem of the students within that same classroom. Similarly, when teachers acquire and employ the building blocks of excellent teaching, for example, within classroom management, instructional, and curricular parameters, the effects upon student learning must be clear.

Finally, and perhaps most critical, is the implication that exists relative to the goodness or badness of autonomy and collaboration. Within the realm of mentoring programs exists an expectation that teachers will work collaboratively through the course of the program and, hopefully, beyond. When teachers are alone in their rooms, this autonomous choice of how to spend time can be assumed to be isolationist and noncollaborative. Fullan (1990) makes a salient point when he argues that autonomy is not necessarily bad and collaboration is not necessarily good. Through her work with teachers, Little highlighted some provocative implications of collaboration versus autonomy:

> The content of teachers' values and beliefs cannot be taken for granted in the study or pursuit of teachers' collegial norms of interaction and interpretation. Under some circumstances, greater contact among teachers can be expected to advance the prospects for students' success; in others, to promote increased teacher-to-teacher contact may be to intensify norms unfavorable to children (Little 1989, 22).

She continues with some questions that should give pause to any reader:

> **Bluntly put, do we have in teachers' collaborative work the creative development of well-informed choices, or the mutual reinforcement of poorly informed habit? Does teachers' time together advance the understanding and imagination they bring to their work, or do teachers merely confirm one another in present practice? What subject philosophy and subject pedagogy do teachers reflect as they work together? How explicit and accessible is their knowledge to one another? Are there collaborations that in fact erode teachers' moral commitments and intellectual merit? (Little 1989, 22).**

Practitioners need to be encouraged to explore the research on excellent and effective teaching in their own classroom practices and become active in testing the current base of knowledge regarding excellent teaching. Teachers must formulate an individual philosophy regarding their craft, recognizing that they must carry out their work in effective schools if they are to be effective teachers (Strother 1985). The latter point presupposes a school culture which recognizes, fosters, and encourages the continuum of teacher development, honors teachers in all stages of their professional growth, and provides time and organizational structures for collaborative efforts focused on individual and systemic development.

Instructional Leadership

> **Dancers have mirrors to provide them with specific feedback. Where are our mirrors? The reflections in the eyes of students are not enough (Maine Peer Coaching Handout).**

When an audience responds favorably to the dancer, their applause lets the dancer know that the performance met or exceeded the expectations of the viewers. Students become the audience of teachers. Like the applause for the dancer, student feedback on teaching performance is both limited and limiting. Student feedback is limited to individual students' perspectives and needs. It is limiting in that this kind of feedback is rarely connected to the technical and professional dimensions of teaching. When teachers, like dancers, have a mirror image to reflect upon, they are able to check actual performance with the intended plan while understanding where and when to make adjustments. Through classroom observations, you can provide a mirror image to new teachers. As a trained mentor, you are able to utilize a variety of observation techniques to collect data during a new teacher's lesson. The data, when shared, allow conversations between you and the new teacher to create accurate images of what transpired in the new teacher's classroom. These conversations provide both a "mirror" reflection of what happened and the opportunity to reflect upon what might be done differently or the same next time.

This way of looking at one's teaching shifts the focus from teachers responding to predetermined scripts toward teachers responding in the most appropriate way to the students in front of them.

A particular culture must exist to nurture this collegial aspect of teacher observation and feedback. The implication is clear. It is crucial to distinguish between our traditional views of supervision and the newer concept of instructional leadership.

> Smyth (1990) and Garman (1990) document how, over the past 30 years, the originally well-conceived collaborative processes of clinical supervision have become a sophisticated mechanism of teaching inspection and instruction surveillance (Grimmet et al. 1992, 187).

To talk about you, as supervisors, creates an image of hierarchal approaches to assisting new teachers rather than a collegial, or horizontal, approach. If we are to talk about this newer way of supervision or teacher observation, we must consider new terminology that will be free of long-held traditional views. As Glickman suggests,

> Supervision is in such throes of change that not only is the historical understanding of the work becoming obsolete, but I've come to believe that if 'instructional leadership' were substituted each time the word 'supervision' appears in the text, and 'instructional leader' substituted for 'supervisor,' little meaning would be lost and much might be gained (Glickman 1992, 3).

To shift to talking about you as instructional leaders, when you are working with new teachers, promotes that sense of collegial interaction.

Within your instructional leadership role, there are *technical*, *professional*, and *ethical* dimensions to acknowledge and embrace. When these dimensions are considered together, a synergy exists that can expand your repertoire and the way you view and organize the world. This impact exists for mentors and new teachers alike.

From a *technical dimension*, you provide specific feedback to new teachers by collecting data as you observe their classrooms. New teachers adjust their teaching in response to what is technically correct. The interaction between you and a new teacher, from a technical perspective, relies on the objective evidence available through classroom observation measured against the body of research describing good teaching practice. Historically, teacher observation and feedback have been dependent upon this technical dimension.

While the technical dimension assumes the awareness of scientific knowledge about teaching, the *professional dimension* includes and moves beyond that limiting perspective. The professional dimension also refers to your expertise and the craft knowledge you possess, knowledge gained from personal training and experience. Success in the new teacher's classroom can be arrived at through a variety of approaches. You acknowledge and value that variety because of your expertise and knowledge.

Within the *ethical dimension* you, as an instructional leader, move beyond a commitment to excellence within your classroom to a commitment to excellence within the profession. You want new teachers to succeed, and are willing to contribute toward that success. For both you and a new teacher, teaching behavior is adjusted because of the impact it will have on the particular group of students within a classroom rather than solely for the technical correctness of the response.

When these three dimensions come together in the thoughts, conversations, and actions of teachers, the practice of teaching responds in a positive way to the science of teaching, growth of the profession, and the unique needs of particular groups of students.

The next section will explore the following questions:

- What are the elements of a comprehensive approach to instructional leadership?
- What skills do instructional leaders need to employ?

What Are the Elements of a Comprehensive Approach to Instructional Leadership?

If the approach to instructional leadership is to be a comprehensive one, there are particular elements that must be addressed. By using the child's pinwheel as a metaphor, we begin to develop a visual framework that describes a comprehensive approach to instructional leadership (see **Figure 3.4** on page 3-18). These six elements, or six Rs, are:

- responsibility;
- relationship;
- repertoire;
- reflection;
- role; and
- research.

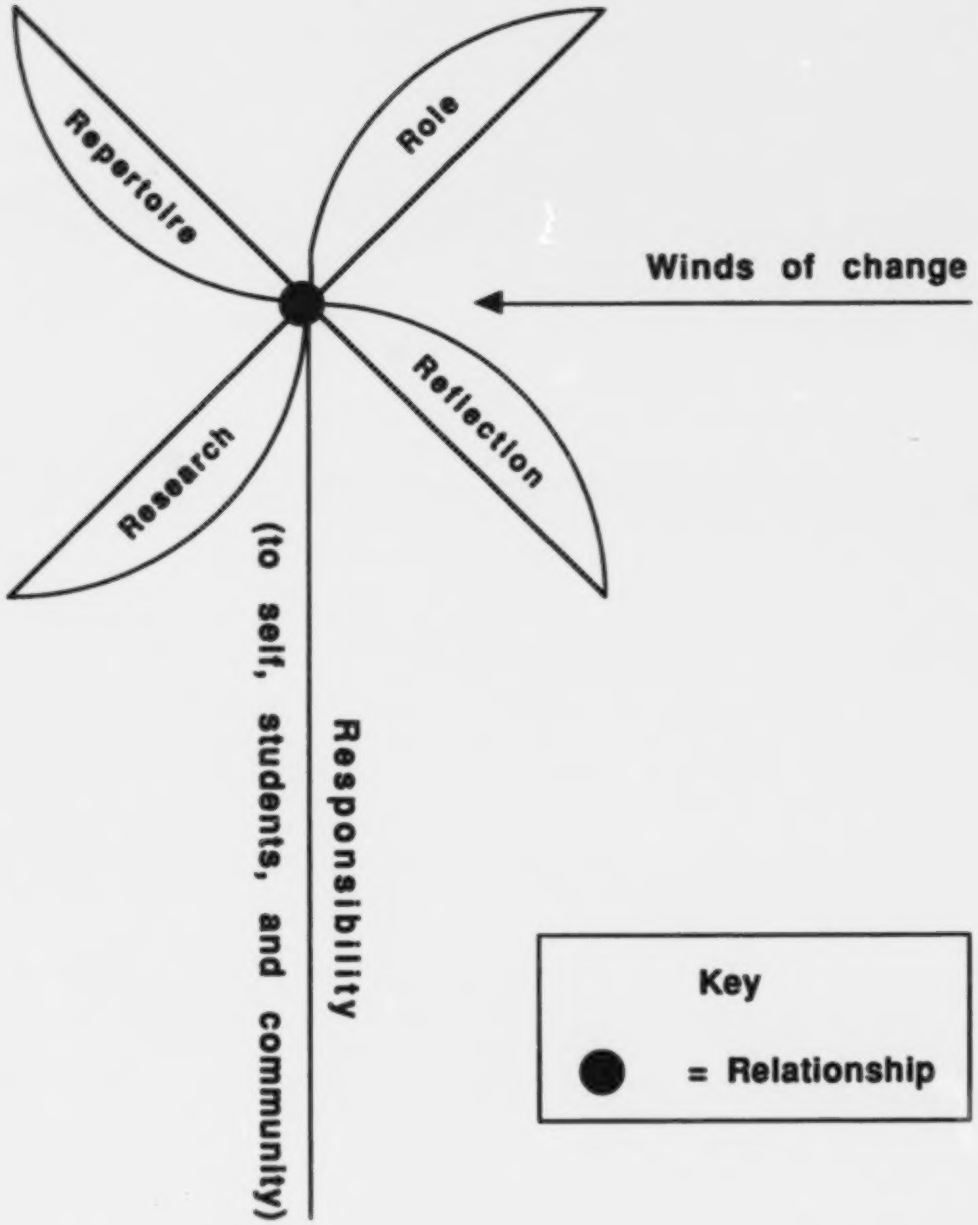
They address technical, professional, and ethical dimensions of instructional leadership.

Responsibility serves as the base upon which the other elements are dependent for support. Without responsibility, the pinwheel lies flat; movement ceases. Relationship serves as the hub around which the other elements revolve. Repertoire, reflection, role, and research are the elements that direct movement. The interaction of these six Rs creates and sustains movement. The following paragraphs begin to describe what is meant by each of these elements as they relate to instructional leadership. While they are described in a linear fashion, no one element is more important than another. They are all interdependent within the context of a comprehensive approach to instructional leadership.

Responsibility

Your role as a mentor teacher includes becoming responsible to the new teacher. The whole notion of responsibility can be vague and inexplicable at times. If, however, we look at responsibility as one's ability to respond, we can then begin to discuss with specificity the mentor teacher's responsibility. When you are able to respond in such a way that your response is selected in the best interest of the new teacher, the students, the community, and the profession, then an ethical dimension to responsibility is established.

Figure 3.4 Visual Framework for a Comprehensive Approach to Instructional Leadership


Repertoire
Role
Winds of change
Reflection
Research
Responsibility
(to self, students, and community)
Key
● = Relationship

Relationship

Relationship is central to the idea of mentoring. How mentors and new teachers are willing and able to relate to one another impacts on how successful the mentoring process will be. Several issues affect this. Teacher career stage, developmental level, and specific concerns of the new teacher (see Chapter 1) all factor into what the mentor/new teacher relationship will look like. Your ability to employ the style of instructional leadership most appropriate for the new teacher with whom you are working is essential for the new teacher to understand and apply feedback on his or her teaching. Additionally, successful relationships are dependent upon an ethic of caring. As Noddings defines caring, it is not necessary for one to form close friendships with all others, but to care, ". . . one must be totally engaged with the individual in each encounter with them" (Noddings 1984, 180).

Repertoire

For you, this includes such skills as conferencing techniques, the ability to apply a variety of methods of data collection during a classroom observation, active listening, the ability to choose a leadership style that is developmentally appropriate for the new teacher, and the ability to understand and articulate those components inherent within the knowledge base about teaching. Through your leadership and coaching, these skills will also become part of a new teacher's repertoire.

Reflection

Reflection by both you and the new teacher is critical. Reflection allows both teachers to think about what worked or did not work in their classrooms and why. Through ongoing reflection, teachers become more able to move from a position of technical correctness within their classrooms to one of critical reflection and response. When teachers make this shift, their decisions are based more on how those decisions will impact the students than on the technical correctness of the response.

Role

With a changing perspective on teaching and learning, you, as an instructional leader, must assume new roles. You become a coach, guide, facilitator, and friend. It is not a role that is judgmental, evaluative, or threatening. For the new teacher, the role becomes one of acceptance and utilization of what the expert mentor teacher can offer. At the same time, the role of new teachers is to challenge current thinking and practice if they are to expand the way they view and organize the world. You need to facilitate and expect that inquiry.

Research

Research must include what inquiry from others tells us, as well as research conducted by teachers in their own contexts. The bodies of literature that exist on any given topic can provide a solid theoretical foundation upon which teachers can further explore their own research questions, develop their own research designs, and collect and analyze their own data through action research projects. When inquiry from others is brought to bear upon specific classroom contexts, the notion of bringing theory to practice can become real for teachers.

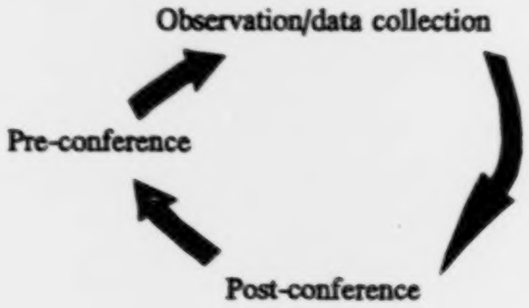
What Skills Do Instructional Leaders Need to Employ?

When we think about the process of collecting data through classroom observations and providing feedback to teachers by utilizing those data, there are several authors and models of clinical assistance that may be helpful (Acheson and Gall 1987; Glickman 1992; Goldhammer et al. 1980; Hunter 1982; Saphier and Gower 1987). It is a compilation of all of their thinking, research, and practice that allows us to develop a comprehensive view of classroom observation within the framework of instructional leadership.

In this section, we will explore observation and conferencing skills from both a process and content perspective, or said differently, the "what" and "how" perspectives. As you work with new teachers, building trust and rapport is essential to the success of the relationship. Your ability to observe, collect data, provide feedback, ask appropriate questions, and select the leadership style that will best meet the readiness and developmental level of the new teacher is equally important. It is your knowing "how" to employ "what" that provides a new teacher with an opportunity to reflect on his or her teaching, and expand his or her repertoire. There is an assumption here that must be made explicit. Within a mentor/new teacher relationship, the expectation must exist that you will observe the new teacher teaching, and that the new teacher will have the opportunity to observe you teaching. Through practice and conversation about that practice, teachers expand their repertoire and become more reflective about their teaching practice.

In her work with teachers, Style (1988) refers to the need for teachers to provide many "windows and mirrors" for their students. The concept of providing "mirrors" allows a diverse group of students to see themselves within the context of the curriculum. In other words, the reflection of the curriculum is not limited to a single perspective. While "mirrors" provide a reflection of one's own reality, "windows" provide one with a view of the reality of others. Through classroom observations and dialogue about those observations, you can assist new teachers by providing a "mirror" of what transpired during a particular lesson, as well as broaden the "window" through which new teachers view themselves, their students, and their colleagues.

Classroom observation is more of a cyclical process than a singular event. There are several phases in the cycle of observation which include:



All phases are important, but it is the pre-observation done well that is the most essential. In a pre-observation conference, you ask the new teacher to actually go through a trial run of exactly what will be taught to the students. In a sense, if you are successful in asking the right kind of questions, new teachers will have already taught that lesson one time before they ever enter the classroom. Even if you never observe the lesson, because of a well-done pre-conference, the new teacher may have thought through potential obstacles and made adjustments ahead of time.

Pre-Observation Conference

You are challenged to assist new teachers in making explicit their intentions for any lesson. New teachers must be able to articulate how they will know that the learner "gets it." Additionally, they need to verbalize the relationship between teaching behavior, expected student behavior, lesson objectives, and desired outcomes. This challenge can be met successfully when particular components are included in each pre-conference. **Figure 3.5** on page 3-22 describes those components in the form of the kinds of questions you need to ask. These questions are equally important and there is no particular order.

The location of the pre-conference is an important consideration in ensuring its success. While the classroom is often the most convenient place to conduct a pre-conference, you must think about issues of privacy, potential interruptions, and other distractions when suggesting a time and place for the pre-conference to occur. For instance, if you know that several students may be coming into the classroom for extra help during the time scheduled for the pre-conference, you know it will be distracting to the new teacher and therefore create an impossible situation for you to be an active listener. To conduct a pre-conference in the faculty lounge, when other colleagues may be coming in or out, is a quick way to dissolve any trust or rapport between you and the new teacher. While the norm of school culture should ensure that conversations about what did not work within teachers' classrooms are valued and expected, we are still in the process of getting to that norm. Consequently, many schools retain a culture in which such discussions become a basis for negative value judgments about individual teaching performance.

When selecting a time and place for the pre-conference, consider the following:

- plan enough time for the conference (usually 15-20 minutes is adequate);
- choose a place where there will be no interruptions or other distractions; and
- if distractions do occur (other than issues of safety or other emergencies), make it clear that the pre-conference is a priority and do not allow the interruption to take precedence.

Following the pre-conference, you should have a clear picture of what and how the new teacher intends to teach; particular concerns that the new teacher may have, for example, what he or she wants you to look for during the observation; and what method of data collection you will use.

In assisting new teachers to expand their views of teaching and learning, it is important to ask the right questions. There are additional conferencing skills that you can employ that support the reflection and decision making necessary to help new teachers broaden these views. You must be "active listeners" and be able to ask follow-up questions that probe for specificity.

Active listening is a skill that many teachers feel they do quite well. A teacher who is actively listening would demonstrate appropriate silence and wait time, congruent body language, and acknowledgment of what the other person is saying by paraphrasing, summarizing, interpreting, or inferring. There is a dangerous potential that must be considered, particularly when a teacher of more experience is assisting a teacher of lesser experience. Simply stated, while an observer may note that the experienced teacher is nodding and utilizing appropriate wait time and silence, quite often "ego speak" can rear its head in the face of an otherwise effective pre-conference. "Ego speak" refers to that little voice that is perpetually speaking within our conscience. This voice

Figure 3.5 Components of Pre–Observation Conference

- When do you want me to observe, for example, **date and time?**
- What is the **purpose of the observation**?
- What is the **objective of the lesson** or the experiment within the lesson?
- What has **led up to/will follow this lesson?**
- What is the **sequence of events** within the lesson/experiment?
- What **student behaviors** do you hope to hear/see?
- What do you hope that **students will be able to do** following the lesson?
- What **teaching strategies/behaviors** will you use or experiment with?
- How are the **teaching strategies, desired student behaviors, and desired outcomes/behaviors related**?
- Do you have **any particular concerns** regarding any of the above?
- Do you have any **additional information** you would like to share with me?
- What **kind of data** would you like me to collect during the observation? (Ask for a seating chart, if necessary.)
- **In what form** should I collect the data?

Source: Adapted with permission of Research for Better Teaching from materials prepared by Mary Ann Haley for a presentation to the New Hampshire Mentor Teacher Pilot Projects in Concord, NH. (c) 1992.

responds to an experience another is telling us about, recalls a similar personal experience, and can't wait until the other person is through so that it can share ("Well, that's interesting, but wait until you hear what happened to me . . ." or "You think that's bad. Wait until you hear this one.") This negative aspect of story telling must not preclude the appropriate telling of stories that would be of benefit to a new teacher. The caution remains that when the telling of stories interferes with the reflective thought of the new teacher, then more than likely you have succumbed to "ego speak," i.e., your need to tell the story versus the new teacher's need to hear it (*see Activity 3-23, "Are You Listening?" on page 3-205*).

Probing for specificity is a skill that you must think about before the conference occurs. While the questions suggested in Figure 3.5 address the essential components of a pre-conference, you must not assume that the initial response of a new teacher will adequately answer the question. For example, when asked to identify the objective of the lesson, a new teacher might very well respond, "to teach addition." Other than knowing that the lesson will focus on mathematical addition, there is no clarity about the teacher's objective. To probe further, the conversation might go like this:

M: What will you teach about addition?
NT: Well, we've been working with adding single numbers and somewhat with two-digit numbers. I would like to begin to do some work around place value.
M: What do you hope to accomplish during this lesson on place value?
NT: I want the students to be exposed to cuisinaire rods and to work more with unifix cubes. I want them to be able to tell the difference between the ones column and the tens column.
M: So, your objective is to have students be able to understand the difference between ones and tens place values?
NT: Well, yes, and also to work with the different manipulatives to demonstrate their understanding.

Through a series of probing questions, the mentor was able to assist the new teacher in thinking through what the specific objective of the lesson actually was. In this case, the mentor's questions also prompted the new teacher to begin to talk and think about how he or she would know that the students "got it," i.e., "[they will] also work with the different manipulatives to demonstrate their understanding."

Sharing data objectively is an acquired skill with many hidden pitfalls. Body language, tone of voice, or facial expression can cloak objectivity with subtle subjective innuendos. When you share data in an objective fashion, new teachers are able to look into a "mirror" reflecting the reality of what transpired during their lesson (*see Activity 3-17, "The Five-Minute University," on page 3-169*).

Observation and Data Collection

During the pre-conference, you and a new teacher agree upon the focus of the observation, what type of data will be collected, and what method of data collection you will use. It is very likely that new teachers will not know what data are important to collect given a particular focus. You may need to probe with follow-up questions to get at this information. Often, because new teachers lack experience with data collection techniques and uses, you may need to suggest the information you need to collect to give them feedback about their area of interest or concern. **It is very important that you literally record whatever data were agreed upon in the pre-conference.** This sense of "sticking to the rules" will give credence to the importance and relevance of the pre-conference and aid in expanding trust and rapport between both of you.

For example, if a new teacher is concerned about responding to a select group of students, while excluding others, you might suggest that the verbal flow technique would be helpful (see description on page 3-26).

Observations may vary in length; however, it is very difficult to conceive of a 10-15 minute observation as adequate for the purpose of collecting useful data for the new teacher. When deciding how long an observation should be, you must always consider the verbal contract that was created during the pre-conference. Once the new teacher describes the lesson, outcomes, and objectives, you have essentially "contracted" to observe the entire lesson. Lessons will vary in length usually from 30-45 minutes. When you leave the classroom prematurely, you can send the message that you disapproved, that you saw something wrong, or that the lesson was not really important.

Throughout the year, you and the new teacher will observe one another several times. Quite often the question becomes, "How many observations are enough?" This, of course, will vary depending upon the specific needs of a new teacher. If new teachers are struggling, more observations may be necessary.

As we begin to discuss specific methods of data collection, there are two particular cautions to consider. First, when classroom observation becomes a singular event, analysis of the data collected may not be a true reflection of a teacher's overall teaching performance. Although the teacher's performance may in fact be typical for that teacher, you have nothing else upon which to base that conclusion. Classroom observation is a cyclical process which must include several observation and conference sessions. Second, you must understand a variety of teaching strategies as well as why and when they are useful. Without that knowledge base, you will be less effective in your ability to observe and may unfairly and unobjectively judge the new teacher.

When you are determining a specific method of data collection, it is important to know what you are looking for and where the new teachers are coming from in terms of their own development. For example, if new teachers want to know which students they respond to and how often, you may use a verbal flow technique. Four months later those same teachers, who are now further along in their own teacher development, may still be curious about responding to particular students. However, they may now want to know how they respond to students in terms of choice of language or level of questions asked. At this time, you may use the selective verbatim or scripting technique. The data collected through this latter technique can provide those new teachers with an opportunity for objective, in-depth reflection on how they responded to their students.

The data you collect through observing new teachers become a tool to be used in the reflective process. There are two very distinct, yet equally important, forms of reflection: technical reflection and critical reflection. For the purpose of our discussion, we will explore methods of data collection within two categories: those most useful in promoting technical reflection and those most useful in promoting critical reflection.*

Technical reflection refers to thinking about the "technical correctness" of a response, while critical reflection refers to the implications of a particular response. While some teachers may think about the technical aspects of their response before they can think about the implications of their response, there is no hierarchy to these different forms of reflection. In fact, there are times when the technical correctness of the response supersedes any other implications of the response. The following scenarios describe what technical and critical reflection look like, as well as provide some examples of when one form of reflective response is more appropriate than the other.

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* See more detailed discussion about technical and critical reflection in *Activity 1-9, "Reflection -- Understanding Technical and Critical Reflection,"* in Chapter 1.

Technical Reflection and Response:

"Jane has been talking during the entire lesson. She does pay more attention when I am closer to where she is sitting. I need to move her seat closer to my work space so that this talking will stop."

Critical Reflection and Response:

"Jane has been talking during the entire lesson. She does pay more attention when I am closer to where she is sitting. If I move her seat closer to my work space, it will decrease the constant talking. But, if I do that, I will also remove her from the few friends she has made since she moved here. Rather than move her seat and take her away from a comfortable peer situation, I need to move around the classroom more during my lesson. I need to make sure that I am closer to Jane than I have been, while I am teaching."

The following scenarios, involving Peter Andrews and Della Grace, illustrate when one form of reflective response is more appropriate than the other.

> *Peter Andrews has known that the practice fire drill would occur at 11:15 A.M. today. His principal had announced the fire drill at a faculty meeting three weeks ago. It is almost 11:15 A.M. and he is finishing up a social studies lesson. He asks one last question. Jamie, who is very shy and unsure of herself, raises her hand to answer the question. Andrews is thrilled at Jamie's willingness to share her opinion. Jamie begins to respond and is not finished when the fire drill sounds. Andrews hesitates, wanting to allow Jamie to continue. Of all times to have to interrupt a student, and especially Jamie. Although this is a planned fire drill, there is always the possibility that it is the real thing. It is also important that the students learn to respond immediately to the potential danger of the alarm. Andrews stops Jamie and asks the children to file out quietly.*

While Peter Andrews experienced a pull between the technical correctness of his response and the implications of his response on Jamie, it was clearly most appropriate to choose the response that was technically correct.

> *Della Grace, a fifth-year teacher at Pierpont Elementary School, had already spoken to Danny three times during the last 30 minutes of, what she thought, was a well-planned math lesson. Once more his preoccupation demanded her attention. Slightly flushed, she left the enthusiastic faces of fourth graders, hands held high, eager to share their answers, and turned to Danny. "Danny," and with an unplanned pause she continued, "Do you have anything to add?" Almost before the question was complete, Danny blurted out, "Yes, I just figured out another way to do that one!" Minutes after the children had left for the day, Della Grace was at the children's conference table wondering why she knew that imposing a disciplinary measure was not the right response to Danny's behavior.*

Imposing a disciplinary measure would have been the technically correct response to a student who is repeatedly and apparently off task. However, Della Grace was able to think on her feet as she challenged herself to think about the implications of stopping Danny's behavior. If she had stopped him, she would not have provided him the opportunity for discovery and the sharing of that discovery.

As teachers begin to understand the difference between technical and critical reflection, there is a dangerous potential to be lulled into the belief that one form of reflection is more desirable and better than the other. You must understand and support the belief that both forms of reflection are important. Depending upon the situation, one form of reflective response can be more appropriate than the other.

There are several methods of data collection. Those most helpful in promoting technical reflection are verbal flow, at task, and class traffic. Those most helpful in promoting critical reflection are selective verbatim, scripting, and audio and/or videotape recordings. A brief discussion of each and its use are offered below. For practice with these techniques, refer to *Activity 3-15, "Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms," on page 3-99, and Activity 3-16, "Nuts and Bolts," on page 3-149.*

Verbal Flow

In this technique, you are recording the number of teacher responses and questions, the number of student responses, which students are responding, and which students are being responded to by the teacher. In order to use this technique, you must be given, or create, a seating plan. The seating plan will serve as an instrument upon which the number of responses between teacher and student are recorded.

This technique can provide useful data: when new teachers want to know which students are involved in the lesson, how many times they respond to particular students, whether they are responding to girls and boys equally, or responses to any concerns they have about a group of problem students.

At Task

When this technique is used, you record at-task and off-task behaviors of all students within the class by using a seating chart instrument (as in the verbal flow technique) and scanning the room in a very specific pattern. Beginning with one corner of the room, you observe each student for three to five seconds and record one of several behaviors before moving on to the next student. A complete scan of all students in the class usually takes two to three minutes. You also record the number of scans that occur and at what time each scan begins. You and the new teacher talk about particular behaviors that the new teacher is interested in knowing about and create a code list to be used during the observation. The following example presents a code for how student behaviors might be recorded on a seating chart:

1. At-task behavior might be recorded as "✓" (or "A").
2. Off-task behavior might be recorded as "S" (or "B").
3. Other productive work might be recorded as "P" (or "C").
4. Distracted or out of seat might be recorded as "O" (or "D").
5. Talking to neighbors might be recorded as "T" (or "E").

If the teacher wants to know about the involvement of all students in the lesson, particularly when he or she may be working with only small groups of students at one time, this method can provide some helpful data. In addition, if the teacher is interested in the percentage of at-task behavior that occurs during a lesson, this method could provide that information.

Class Traffic

In this method, a sketch of the classroom, including a labeled seating arrangement, is used as the instrument to record where the teacher and students move during a lesson. When you have had practice using some of these techniques, class traffic can also be used in conjunction with the at-task or verbal flow method.

When the teacher is interested in receiving feedback about individualized instruction, whether they teach to one side of the room more than the other, or if they are connecting with all of their students during a lesson, this method can provide data to answer those concerns.

Selective Verbatim

In this technique, you record verbatim anything that is said by the teacher and students within a particular category. The category of verbal responses to be recorded is predetermined by you and the new teacher. For example, the new teacher may be interested in what type of questions he or she asks. You would then record verbatim all of the questions that the new teacher asks. In another instance, the new teacher may be interested in knowing whether he or she asks higher-level questions of both boys and girls. In this case, you would also record whether the questions are directed to a girl (G) or a boy (B).

This technique provides useful data if new teachers are interested in feedback about their questioning techniques, levels of student thinking, or amount of teacher talk.

Scripting

Scripting is a verbatim record of what was said by whom during a lesson. While data provided by this method are extremely useful in providing an exact and objective account of what happened during a lesson, if you have not used it before, you may need several practice sessions before you are comfortable in using this technique. It requires a very focused observer. However, its benefits are as great as the intensity of collecting data in this way.

This technique can be used for whatever a teacher may want to know about what happened during the lesson with the exception of class traffic patterns. When data are collected through scripting, you can then ask new teachers what they recall thinking about when they asked a certain question or when a particular student gave a specific response.

Audio and/or Videotape Recording

This method can be initiated and performed by either you or the new teacher. When the audiotape is used, a tape recorder simply plays for all or part of the new teacher's lesson. The videotape recording can be used in several ways to record a particular part or aspect of a lesson, what is happening in the entire classroom during a lesson, or interactions between the teacher and a particular student or group of students. It can also be used to record the behavior of students not involved with the teacher during a certain part of the lesson.

These methods can be used for recording data in response to anything the new teacher may be concerned about or interested in knowing. It is very important for you to consider the intimidating nature of these data collection methods. When new teachers have not had previous experience with these methods or when it is the beginning of the school year, these may not be appropriate. In fact, many new teachers may not be comfortable having you record their lessons in this way during their first year of teaching. You may suggest that new teachers tape their own lessons solely for their own viewing, thereby removing yourself from the analysis of the data. Give them one of the data collection sheets with an explanation of how to use it and let them practice on themselves. If new teachers are nervous about being observed or having their lesson taped, this can often help to curb that anxiety. New teachers should not be forced into being videotaped or audiotaped by the mentor teacher.

Post-Observation Conference

The post-observation conference can serve as both "mirror" and "bridge" for the new teacher. The data collected, when shared, provide a mirror image of what went on during a lesson, while the ensuing conversation provides the bridge between one lesson and the next. Often, the post-observation conference is the beginning of the next pre-conference. A successful post-conference provides objective feedback to new teachers, while affording them an opportunity to critique their performance. Your primary concern is to ask questions of the new teacher, while utilizing an instructional leadership style that best fits the new teacher's need for structure. **Figure 3.6** on page 3-29 identifies some key questions you need to ask of the new teacher. *Activity 3-17, "The Five-Minute University," on page 3-169,* provides you an opportunity to practice pre- and post-conferencing skills.

As with the pre-conference, where and when the conference is held can have a significant impact on its success. Given the reality of teachers' schedules, a post-conference can be held any time from several hours to several days following the actual classroom observation. When you know that there will be a significant time span between observation and conference, it might be helpful to share the data collected with the new teacher ahead of time. The data shared, coupled with the time for reflection, can enhance the success of the post-observation conference. Often, however, the post-conference occurs immediately following the observation. You will need to refrain from an enthusiastic account of what you thought about the lesson as you interpret the data. Praise is an ego booster; yet, it does not inform teaching practice. Rather, new teachers need to have the data shared in such a way that they are able to critique their own lessons.

The traditional views of learning and teaching would support the more prescriptive style of leadership, however, the changing views of learning and teaching make a strong case for a style of leadership that facilitates the new teacher's learning process. **Figure 3.7** on page 3-30 compares and contrasts the process of learning, the role of the mentor, the goal of the mentor, and learning strategies between the traditional and changing views of learning and teaching. While this changing view implies that mentors need to utilize collaborative and nondirective styles of leadership, there are also instances in which a direct informational style best meets the needs of the new teachers.

In **Figure 3.8** on page 3-31, the conceptual flexibility of the new teacher is cross-referenced with the instructional leadership style of best fit. As discussed in Chapter 1, Hunt's model of teachers' conceptual levels describes three stages of teachers' conceptual development: Stage A, B, and C. These developmental indicators are important for mentors to recognize and respond to if they are to choose, and know why they are choosing, a leadership style that best serves the needs of a new teacher. For example, Stage A teachers, according to Hunt's model, will prefer a high level of structure. Often, these teachers are able to see only one way of accomplishing a task or solving a problem. The implication for the mentor teacher is clear. Stage A teachers will not want to be given a choice of several lesson plans that *may* work; they want to know one plan that they are able to follow that will *probably* work. If Stage A teachers' lessons do not go well, they are often unable to reflect upon all of the possible reasons for those lessons' outcomes. In fact, a new

Figure 3.6 Components of Post-Observation Conference

- How did **you feel** about the lesson or the experiment? What went on that contributed to those feelings?
- What do you **recall of student behaviors**?
- What do you **recall of your own behaviors and strategies** during the lesson?
- How did **your strategies and behaviors compare** with what was planned?
- What **data** do I have for you?
- To what extent do you feel the **objective of the lesson or experiment** was achieved?
- What might account for the **outcomes achieved?**
- What have **you learned** from this lesson/experience?
- If you were to do it again, what would be the "**keepers**" and what might you **do differently**?
- What do you think a **follow-up lesson** would look like?

AS THE CONFERENCE COMES TO A CLOSE . . .

New teacher and mentor **reflect on the observation and conference process** and how they are working together. What are you finding useful? What might you change next time or ask your partner to do differently?

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

teacher may perceive that a lesson went well when you have data to suggest otherwise. In this case, you need to employ a direct informational style of instructional leadership.[**] In contrast, Stage C teachers will prefer a low level of structure. Stage C teachers will often develop and describe a variety of approaches to solving the same problem. A nondirectional style of leadership can be of most benefit in meeting the needs of Stage C teachers. In utilizing this style of leadership, you will clarify, encourage, and request the new teacher to analyze the problem, and use the new teacher's criteria in creating standards for his or her classroom.

Stage B teachers prefer a moderate level of structure, requiring more equal participation between the mentor and new teacher in solving a problem. A collaborative style of leadership best meets the needs of Stage B teachers. A mentor employing a collaborative style of leadership both shares an opinion as well as elicits a new teacher's opinion. The perspectives of both the mentor and new teacher influence the final outcome (*see Activity 3-18, "Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership," on page 3-177; Activity 3-19, "Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels," on page 3-183; Activity 3-20, "Revolving Doors: A Videotape*

[**] We have conscientiously used the term *direct informational style* versus *direct style*. The latter suggests a very prescriptive, authoritative response.

Figure 3.7 Comparison of Learning and Teaching Perspectives

Traditional Views of Learning and Teaching	Changing Views of Learning and Teaching
Learning is the process of accumulating bits of information and isolated skills.	All learning, except for simple rote memorization, requires the learner to actively construct meaning.
The mentor's primary responsibility is to transfer his or her knowledge directly to new teachers.	New teachers' prior understandings of and thoughts about a topic or concept before instruction exert a tremendous influence on what they learn during instruction.
Changing new teacher behavior is the mentor's primary goal.	The mentor's primary goal is to facilitate a change in the new teacher's cognitive structure or way of viewing and organizing the world.
The process of learning and teaching focuses primarily on the interactions between the mentor and new teacher.	Because learning is a process of active construction by new teachers, the mentor cannot do the work of learning. Learning in cooperation with others is an important source of motivation, support, modeling, and coaching.
Thinking and learning skills are transferable across all content areas.	Content-specific learning and thinking strategies play a much more important role in learning than was previously recognized.

Source: Adapted from *Supervision in Transition: The 1992 ASCD Yearbook.* (45-48) Carl D. Glickman, ed. Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development. Copyright 1992. Adapted by permission of publisher and author.

Reflection Cycle," on page 3-187; and Activity 3-21, "Beyond Fashion: The Instructional Leadership Style of Best Fit," on page 3-189).

The fact that Hunt's model is a developmental one suggests that stage development is dynamic. While teachers may exhibit a usual conceptual stage, movement to a less flexible or more flexible stage can occur. Within the context of teaching, stage movement can occur relative to the competence of the new teacher. Experienced teachers can shift to an earlier conceptual stage, when involved in new learning. Over time, they may shift back to their usual conceptual level, but in new learning they may need a higher level of structure than they would normally prefer. **Figure 3.3** on page 3-13, "Johari's Window Model of Competency," illustrates four windows representing stages in growth toward competence.

Figure 3.8 Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators

Hunt's Conceptual Levels: Teachers' Conceptual Flexibility	Style of Instructional Leadership That Usually Fits Best	Interpersonal Behavior of Instructional Teacher Might Look Like This
Stage A Teacher: Teacher prefers high level of structure **Example**: *"I have tried the only way I know how and it just did not work. What do I do?"*	**Direct Informational**: Maximum responsibility on mentor, minimum responsibility on new teacher Provides high level of structure	Presents, clarifies, listens, directs, standardizes, reinforces **Example**: *"I know you feel that the lesson did not go well. I have taught it this way. . . . Here is a sample lesson you can follow."*
Stage B Teacher: Teacher prefers moderate degree of structure **Example**: *"There seems to be a need to shift how I am teaching this. I have some thoughts about how, but I am not sure. Have you got some ideas?"*	**Collaborative**: Shared responsibility between mentor and new teacher Provides moderate level of structure	Listens and reflects, then clarifies, presents, analyzes problems, encourages mutuality in planning and in standardization **Example**: *"This is one possibility. What do you think? Could I have been misreading this?"*
Stage C Teacher: Teacher prefers low level of structure **Example**: *"How students deal with conflict and how they actively assimilate new learning are two key concepts for this next unit. I have put together several lessons using a variety of approaches. What do you think?"*	**Nondirective**: Minimum responsibility on mentor, maximum responsibility on new teacher Provides low level of structure	Listens, reflects, clarifies, encourages, requests new teacher to analyze problem, standardizes using new teacher's criteria **Example**: *"It seems clear that you would like to teach conflict resolution skills through active learning. . . . Tell me more about that."*

Conflict: A Trigger for Growth?

The need to deal with conflict in a variety of ways is an unwritten requirement for the growth of humankind. Dealing with conflict is necessary for change to occur. As participants within school cultures, you are constantly faced with conflict and the need to negotiate. When you are able to utilize various modes of conflict resolution, you maximize the potential for growth and change.

As a mentor, you may be faced with inner conflict as well as conflict with others. As you build your relationship with a new teacher and take on the role of instructional leader, you will undoubtedly face the need to resolve conflict on several levels. You will need to resolve your own internal dissonance and conflicts with others, while assisting a new teacher in acquiring those same skills. Within the context of a mentoring relationship, you will need to identify several aspects of conflict resolution and negotiation. First, you must "know yourself"; that is, you need to have an inside view of your own preferred style of dealing with conflict. Second, you need to identify the attributes and behaviors of others that give rise to potential conflict and give you reason to call those individuals difficult to deal with. Finally, you need strategies to cope with conflict in a constructive way, while being true to yourself and, at the same time, contributing to the growth of those with whom you work.

With this framework in mind, we will explore answers to the following questions:

- What do you need to know about conflict?
- What skills do mentors need in resolving conflict?
- What is the relationship between developing skills to resolve conflict and a successful mentoring program?

What Do You Need to Know about Conflict?

Resolving conflict can be a challenge for you and a new teacher from both an internal and external perspective. Internally, teachers continually struggle with their own teacher growth by asking themselves questions like: "Can I? Should I? Would I? Could I? Will I?" The following excerpt from the journal of an experienced teacher describes such internal conflict.

> I am an experienced, well-respected teacher who is given autonomy within my classroom by the administration. I believe the assumption is that I'm a master teacher who deserves to be left alone. Yet, there is this "prickly place" within me. I guess some would call it dissonance. This place is one where I feel challenged to question my current beliefs, values, and ideas about teaching. It is a place that demands my attention while causing much discomfort. Usually, I ignore the challenge and respond to the irritation of this prickly place in a not so subtle, cynical way. I hear myself saying things like, "If it ain't broke, why fix it," or "It's worked this way in the past, evidenced by my students coming back to thank me and talk of their successes in college." I wonder if I'm embracing the ease of status quo as an expected reward for my tired state or am I needing the reward of challenge which I allow to be masked by my unconditional acceptance of autonomy? Can I be challenged in isolation? I don't think so. My perception is that Gina, Miguel, and Jamie are coming from the same place. But how do I know? Am I through becoming better?

You will be faced with many levels of internal and external conflict. Choosing to disengage with conflict can have its merit, yet, it is often necessary to become uncomfortable in order to broaden your comfort zone. The internal conflict, the dissonance, described in the journal entry describes one individual's need to ride the tide of her "prickly place" in order to risk becoming a better teacher. The ability to respond to this challenge is a calling card of one who cherishes the right and need to grow. Mentors who embrace new personal conflicts model a critical attribute that new teachers need to develop.

External conflicts pose a more familiar and talked about sense of the need for resolution and negotiation. Both internal and external conflict are expected challenges in the process of becoming a teacher. To be most effective in dealing with external conflict, you need to be aware of:

- styles of dealing with conflict;
- your own preferred style of dealing with conflict;
- the behaviors and patterns of individuals who are difficult to deal with; and
- strategies that allow you to cope with and resolve conflicts.

In addition to a solid understanding of these issues, you need opportunities to develop the ability to apply them. While we have identified particular issues related to both internal and external conflict, the following discussion on skill development will apply most directly to the resolution of external conflict.

What Skills Do Mentors Need in Resolving Conflict?

Whenever there are two or more individuals involved, the potential for external human conflict exists. Within the context of mentoring new teachers, the nature of such conflict becomes more specific. You may find yourself confronted by disgruntled, nonmentor colleagues who question the value of a mentoring program and the time it takes to be a mentor. Administrators may attempt to solicit your input for the purpose of evaluating new teachers, in spite of a prior agreement to honor the confidentiality of the mentor/new teacher relationship. New teachers can be resistant to your advice and consequently become more difficult to deal with, or they can be overly dependent and monopolize most, if not all, of your time. Regardless of the situation, there are particular strategies and skills that you can employ to effectively resolve conflict.

The ability to negotiate is a prerequisite to the resolution of conflict. Through their work on the Harvard Negotiation Project, Fisher, Ury, and Patton (1991) have developed what they call "principled negotiation." This form of negotiation is delineated from both "hard" and "soft" negotiation. In "hard" negotiation, opposing sides dig hard into their positions, and one might hear comments like, "This is the bottom line. It's my way or the highway." In "soft" negotiation, avoidance of personal conflict is paramount. Often "soft" negotiators will give in to the other side, yet, leave feeling put upon. In the second edition of *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In*, Fisher, Ury, and Patton describe their view of "principled negotiation." "The method of principled negotiation . . . is to decide issues on their merits rather than through a haggling process focused on what each side says it will and won't do. It suggests that you look for mutual gains whenever possible, and that where your interests conflict, you should insist that the result be based on some fair standards independent of the will of either side. The method of principled negotiation is hard on the merits, soft on the people. It employs no tricks and no posturing. Principled negotiation shows you how to obtain what you are entitled to and still be decent. It enables you to be fair while protecting you against those who would take advantage of your fairness" (Fisher et al. 1991, xviii).

In describing those skills most helpful in resolving conflict, we will use the primary tenets of principled negotiation. You will need to be able to employ particular skills within a method, which Fisher, Ury, and Patton refer to as the method of "Getting to Yes." **Figure 3.9** on page 3-34 describes that method.

Figure 3.9 Steps to Consider In "Getting to Yes"

Problem:	(DONT BARGAIN OVER POSITIONS)
Method of Resolution:	1. Separate the People from the Problem. 2. Focus on Interests, not Positions. 3. Invent Options for Mutual Gain. 4. Insist on Using Objective Criteria.

Source: Excerpt from *Getting to Yes* 2/e by Roger Fisher, William Ury, and Bruce Patton. Copyright (c) 1981, 1991 by Roger Fisher and William Ury. Reprinted by permission of Houghton Mifflin Co. All rights reserved; 1 and 5.

As suggested in the earlier section on "Building a Relationship," supportive mentoring behavior requires practice in becoming conscious of the messages you send. Knowing how one's own behavior may be contributing to the conflict is essential before the conflict can be amicably resolved. The implication here is that you will need to take the lead in modeling behavior that will allow principled negotiation to occur. You cannot change the other person, but you can change your response to the other person's behavior. In doing so, you are likely to affect change in his or her behavior. *Activity 3-22, "Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution," on page 3-197,* provides opportunities for you to take a look at how you prefer to resolve conflict. This self-assessment can prove helpful as a first step in conflict resolution skill development.

The Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument described in *Changing the Game* is a useful instrument in helping you assess your preferred style of resolving conflict. Five styles of dealing with conflict are explored with each one employing varying degrees of assertiveness and cooperation. Once the instrument is completed and scored, you will find that you prefer a competitive, avoidance, compromising, accommodating, or collaborative style of resolving conflict. This inside view can provide a start toward developing an understanding of and ability to apply a variety of conflict resolution styles.

Depending upon value systems, personal and/or professional beliefs, cultural norms, or the task at hand, one style may be more effective than another. The Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument explores the limitations and strengths of each style.

While the responsibility to engage in principled negotiation is being placed heavily on you, the assumption should not be made that resolution is reached without regard to your perspective and needs. In fact, it is critical that your perspective be articulated if principled negotiation is to occur. *Activity 3-24, "More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages," on page 3-209,* is a good example of how individuals can validate their concerns while achieving mutual gain in resolving a conflict.

Any strategy, no matter how effective, can have its limitations, and the steps in "Getting to Yes" are no exception. These steps provide general concepts that will need to be applied with some variation depending upon the context of particular situations. People who are difficult to deal with are difficult for a variety of reasons. The differences among them will require different responses on your part. *Activity 3-25, "Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People," on page 3-215 and Activity 3-27, "Resolving Potential Conflicts," on page 3-237,* will provide you with an opportunity to recognize the different behaviors and patterns of difficult people as well as develop strategies for dealing with them.

Even with skills, a method, and many opportunities for practice in conflict resolution, you are still a human being first and foremost. As human beings, we will always wrestle with the strength of our emotions versus the need for objectivity. While the need for objectivity is indeed critical, an emotional state can often override that need. If you find yourself in this predicament, then it can be extremely helpful to employ the "24-hour rule" whenever possible. The 24-hour rule puts 24 hours between the peak of an emotional conflict and the attempt to resolve that conflict. Quite often, when given time to reflect upon a conflict that stirs up strong emotion, the emotion dissipates and we become better able to focus on the problem at hand. It is important to note that the 24-hour rule is a strategy to be used toward resolving conflict, rather than avoiding conflict.

If you are able to effectively employ various styles of resolving conflict as you work toward "Getting to Yes," you will need to be able to:

- identify the problem;
- maintain objectivity;
- respond respectfully;
- understand that the other person may not have similar coping skills;
- choose the most appropriate style of resolving conflict;
- understand and respect the difference between how you address conflict and how the other person addresses conflict;
- recognize that the apparent difference can often provide a solution;
- recognize limits on both sides and know when to seek other resources; and
- utilize the "24-hour rule" when necessary.

What Is the Relationship Between Developing Skills to Resolve Conflict and a Successful Mentoring Program?

Resolving conflict, whether from an internal or external point of view, is a predictable challenge mentors and new teachers must be willing to accept. When these teacher pairs are able to work through the conflicts that arise, they model behavior for one another that validates personal positions while moving forward in the development of the relationship. Not only do teachers grow from this experience, but they become better able to effectively model for their students the strategies of principled negotiation.

As teachers develop the willingness to deal with conflict and the ability to effectively do so, the culture of the school will grow in its understanding of the positive and necessary aspects of conflict resolution and negotiation. Mentor programs want to promote new teachers being reflective about their practice. At the same time, the practice of new teachers should reflect what skills are important for students to develop as they become our next leaders. Among the most important of those skills are the ability to meet the challenge of internal dissonance and the ability to effectively resolve conflicts with others.

Conclusion

As you prepare yourself or another to take on the role of mentor teacher, the elusive process of getting there may become more apparent to you. The skills, strategies, and attributes of leadership we have explored in this chapter may require many trial runs before they become part of your repertoire. The willingness to risk on your part and a school culture that supports you as risk taker can significantly change the way in which new teachers are introduced to our profession. In addition, those teachers are better able to model and value risk taking for their students. As Duke (1987, 83) points out, "It is important to note that the relationship between instructional leadership and teaching excellence . . . is characterized by a continuing interaction. In other words, instructional leadership constantly influences teaching, and teaching constantly influences instructional leadership."

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 3

	Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
3-1.	Preparing Mentor Teachers (page 3-41)	To familiarize participants with the concepts and research presented in Chapter 3 that pertain to building a relationship with a new teacher, effective teaching, instructional leadership, and conflict resolution	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise
3-2.	All for One and One for All: Common Beliefs from Our Stories (page 3-45)	To understand how our personal experiences influence our professional beliefs, create a common set of beliefs for the role of mentor, and build some sense of "team" through personal and professional reflection	60 minutes or more	Awareness	Small-group work Story telling
3-3.	Understanding and Celebrating Diversity (page 3-53)	To understand the breadth of diversity in society and schools and gain an active appreciation for its strengths	60-120 minutes	Awareness	Jigsaw exercise
3-4.	Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor (page 3-57)	To help mentors understand that everyone has a culture, introduce them to some cultural differences beyond their own cultural domains, and provide them with a framework with which they can begin exploring new meanings of ways people behave and communicate	90 minutes	Awareness Application	Large-group work Small-group work
3-5.	Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors (page 3-67)	To aid mentors in reflecting on important aspects of their relationship with a new teacher	90 minutes	Application	Large-group work Small-group work
3-6.	Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself (page 3-69)	To help new mentors set appropriate goals for the upcoming year	30 minutes initially; undetermined for follow-up	Awareness Application	Individual work -- written assignment
3-7.	Setting Expectations (page 3-71)	To reflect on and create a clear statement of expectations for a mentoring relationship	60 minutes	Application	Individual work Small- and large-group discussion

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 3 (continued)

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
3-8. The Nitty Gritty: What Do New Teachers Really Need to Know in Our Schools? (page 3-73)	To create a list of "essentials" (notes on facility, personnel, responsibilities, and first-day considerations) that help orient new teachers to a school site	90 minutes	Awareness	Carousel brainstorming Large-group discussion
3-9. I'd Like You to Meet . . .: Introducing the School Community (page 3-83)	To create a contextual "portrait" of the history, atmosphere, and dynamics of the school setting to acclimate new teachers	90 minutes	Awareness	Individual work Small- and large-group discussion
3-10. Charting New Teachers' Needs (page 3-85)	To engage mentors in an action research project that focuses on the changing needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers throughout the year	60-120 minutes for each meeting	Awareness Application	Individual work Small-group work
3-11. A Wrinkle in Time (page 3-87)	To identify the inhibiting and enabling forces around the issue of time -- time for the mentor and new teacher to meet, observe, share, and plan	45-60 minutes	Awareness	Small-group work Large-group work
3-12. Planning Classroom Lessons (page 3-89)	To give mentors and new teachers an opportunity to plan classroom and instructional organization	90 minutes for each phase	Application	Individual work Small-group work Large-group discussion
3-13. "Debriefing" Classroom Lessons (page 3-93)	To reflect on teaching practice and improve classroom and instructional management	60-90 minutes	Application	Individual work Small-group work
3-14. We're Ready to Help: A Collegial Collection of Resources for New Teachers (page 3-95)	To develop a resource list of site-based talents of the staff available to new teachers as an example of collegiality	60-90 minutes	Awareness	Small-group work
3-15. Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms (page 3-99)	To practice and discuss six methods of data collection in a cooperative learning format	150-180 minutes	Awareness Application	Learning centers

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 3 (continued)

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
3-16. Nuts and Bolts (page 3-149)	To practice data collection methods which may be used when observing new teachers	10-40 minutes per module	Application	Varies by module
3-17. The Five-Minute University (page 3-169)	To practice pre- and post-conference skills through the teaching of and reflection on minilessons	105-135 minutes	Application	Teaching and reflection on mini-lessons
3-18. Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership (page 3-177)	To understand leadership styles and interpersonal behavior in terms of Hunt's conceptual levels of teachers	75 minutes	Awareness	Presentation Small-group work
3-19. Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels (page 3-183)	To practice pre-conferencing skills relative to Hunt's conceptual levels of teachers	90 minutes	Application	Role playing Small-group work
3-20. Revolving Doors: A Videotape Reflection Cycle (page 3-187)	To provide new teachers with an opportunity to examine and reflect upon videotapes of their teaching and to provide mentors with an opportunity to examine and reflect upon videotapes of their conferencing	120 minutes	Application	Pre-conference Videotaping of lesson Reflective dialogue Videotaping of post-observation conference Reflective dialogue
3-21. Beyond Fashion: The Instructional Leadership Style of Best Fit (page 3-189)	To become familiar with direct informational, collaborative, and nondirective styles of leadership and understand when to use which one when working with new teachers	120 minutes	Awareness	Presentation Individual reflection Discussion in dyads Large-group discussion Individual work -- written assignment
3-22. Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution (page 3-197)	To introduce various styles of dealing with conflict and provide participants with an opportunity to identify their usually preferred style of dealing with conflict	120 minutes	Awareness	Large-group discussion Small-group work Presentation
3-23. Are You Listening? (page 3-205)	To learn and practice active listening	120 minutes	Awareness Application	Jigsaw exercise Large-group discussion Small-group work Role playing

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 3 (continued)

Activity/Pages	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
3-24. More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages (page 3-209)	To learn and practice how to make assertive, nonjudgmental statements that express one's own needs honestly	60-90 minutes	Application	Large-group work Small-group work
3-25. Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People (page 3-215)	To recognize difficult people in our lives (including how we are difficult people to others) and plot strategies for dealing with them	120 minutes	Application	Individual reflection Large-group discussion Small-group work
3-26. In a Jam: How to Advocate for a New Teacher (page 3-231)	To explore the role of advocate by practicing how to help new teachers in "sticky" situations	90 minutes	Application	Role playing
3-27. Resolving Potential Conflicts (page 3-237)	To develop problem-solving and conflict resolution skills	60-90 minutes	Application	Role playing

ACTIVITY 3-1

PREPARING MENTOR TEACHERS

Purpose(s): To familiarize participants with the concepts and research presented in Chapter 3 that pertain to building a relationship with a new teacher, effective teaching, instructional leadership, and conflict resolution

Materials: Directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 3-C, enough copies of the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 3" and the text of Chapter 3 for each participant, newsprint, easels, and markers

Trainer's Notes: You might find it helpful to review "How to Make an Activity Your Own: A Working Checklist" in Appendix 3-A on page 3-257 and the "Guide to Facilitation" in Appendix 3-B on page 3-259 prior to conducting this or any of the activities in Chapter 3. The material in Appendix 3-A presents a checklist of items to consider when you customize an activity to meet your own needs. Appendix 3-B identifies particular facilitator skills and behaviors that can contribute to the success of your sessions.

Please refer to the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 3-C on page 3-265. Deviation from those general directions is noted below.

You will need to have enough copies of Chapter 3 or make enough copies of the following sections of Chapter 3 for each participant:

"Building a Relationship," pp. 3-1 through 3-8;

"Effective Teaching and Beyond," pp. 3-8 through 3-15;

"Instructional Leadership," pp. 3-15 through 3-23;

"Instructional Leadership," pp. 3-23 through 3-31; and

"Conflict: A Trigger for Growth?" pp. 3-31 through 3-36.

So that participants will be able to refer to the focus questions during their reading, you may wish to put them on newsprint, an overhead, or on a separate piece of paper that can be distributed to each participant. You may also wish to modify the focus questions to fit your context.

You might find it helpful to share Chapter 3 or the excerpts with participants in advance. This will allow for more thoughtful reading, more time for sharing in expert groups, and will make this activity less time-consuming.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of a jigsaw activity -- to provide a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about topics that have been selected, in this case, the text of Chapter 3.

2. Share the questions on the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Chapter 3." This will offer participants a focus to their reading.

3. Have participants form home groups of five. Then, have each member of the home group choose an excerpt, or you can assign one of the five sections: building a relationship, effective teaching and beyond, instructional leadership (two parts), and conflict.

4. If participants have not read the excerpts prior to the activity, have them read their articles independently.

5. Then, form homogeneous or expert groups. These participants have all read the same excerpt. Have them discuss, identify, and record on newsprint:

    - major themes of their excerpt from Chapter 3;
    - implications of these themes to their mentoring relationship or mentoring relationships in general; and
    - a thought that they will take back to use in their relationship with new teachers.

6. Have participants return to their home groups. Then, have experts share one major theme, one implication of a theme to mentoring relationships in general, and a thought that they will take back to use in their relationship with their new teachers.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

FOCUS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION OF CHAPTER 3

1. What are the major themes of your excerpt?

2. What are the implications of these themes to your mentoring relationship or mentoring relationships in general?

3. What thought will you take back to use in your relationship with new teachers?

ACTIVITY 3-2

ALL FOR ONE AND ONE FOR ALL: COMMON BELIEFS FROM OUR STORIES

Purpose(s): To understand how our personal experiences influence our professional beliefs, create a common set of beliefs for the role of mentor, and build some sense of "team" through personal and professional reflection

Materials: Enough sets of "reflection cards" and copies of the "WE BELIEVE . . ." handout for each group of five participants, newsprint, easels, markers, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is drawn almost entirely from the work of Barrie Bennett, Carol Rolheiser-Bennett, and Laurie Stevahn, *Cooperative Learning: Where Heart Meets Mind* (Toronto: Educational Connections, 1991), and the reflection cards from Laurie Stevahn. *Cooperative Learning: Where Heart Meets Mind* can be obtained in Canada from Educational Connections, Station "P," 704 Spadina Ave., P.O. Box 249, Toronto, Ontario M5S 2S8 [phone: (416) 619-0376] and in the United States from Interaction Book Company, 7208 Cornelia Drive, Edina, MN 55435 [phone: (612) 831-9500].

This activity will be most successful if participants are grouped as a team that currently is or soon will be working together. If participants do not come as a team, you may want to establish criteria for forming groups ahead of time. You will need additional reflection cards if there are more than five in each group.

Relating personal experiences can be a high-risk activity. Encouraging a safe environment can foster honest individual and team reflection, resulting in the most useful belief statement.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form groups of five.
2. As an introduction, explain that our personal lives intersect and overlap with our professional lives. Many of our significant past experiences are manifest today in what we know, do, and value as educators. Recalling incidents and people that helped to sharpen our values, sharing those stories and their lessons with colleagues, and drawing out common themes can create a sound base of beliefs from which to launch an educational venture like a mentoring program.
3. Distribute a set of "reflection cards" to each group and ask each group member to choose one of the cards.
4. Give each participant five to ten minutes to reflect on his or her card, making appropriate notes if necessary. Remind everyone that they will have about five minutes each to share with their team their responses to their card.

5. Have each group choose a timekeeper and a recorder. As each team member shares for up to five minutes, the recorder notes the "essence" (key phrases, important insights, noteworthy remarks) from each participant's story and subsequent lessons.

6. Ask each group to review the newsprint and list common themes and values in their anecdotes. Have them weave those into a common belief statement.

7. Have them record these on the "WE BELIEVE . . ." handout distributed to each team.

8. Have the group decide on a symbol or combination of symbols that represent their belief statement, and illustrate that on the "WE BELIEVE . . ." handout. Ask the team to sign the statement as a show of support.

9. Ask individual participants to reflect momentarily on the belief statement and consider how it will translate into an action that they can take. Encourage them to be as specific as possible.

10. Ask participants to share their belief-in-action statements with their team members.

11. Have each team share their statement and explain their symbols to the other teams. Be prepared to mount them together as a common, collective statement, combining symbols wherever possible.

Time Required: 60 minutes or more

REFLECTION CARD #1

"Two roads diverged in a wood, and I —
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference."
Robert Frost

The roads you have traveled in education have taken you in a variety of directions, providing depth and breadth to your experience. Think about your journey as an educator -- where you started, the various roles you have played, and how you have grown.

What "**turning points**" have you faced as you traveled? Reflect on those places in your journey where you came to a "Y" in the road -- where you had to make a choice -- and you decided to take "the road less traveled."

Select one of your "road less traveled" experiences to think about in detail. What did you learn from the experience? Who was with you on that road? How did others contribute to the insights you gleaned from the experience? How has the experience left its mark on you as an educator? What symbols would capture the essence of the experience and the impact it had on you?

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Cooperative Learning: Where Heart Meets Mind* by Barrie Bennett, Carol Rolheiser-Bennett, and Laurie Stevahn. (c) 1991.

REFLECTION CARD #2

"Life is a daring adventure or it is nothing at all."
Helen Keller

Throughout your years as an educator, certain experiences have shaped your beliefs about what is important in teaching and learning, consequently influencing the choice you have made. Reflect on the **"peak experiences"** you have had in professional development -- high points that have greatly contributed to your growth as an educator.

Select one "high point" in your professional development to think about in detail. What was the experience and how did you become involved? Were others part of the experience? What role did they play? How did the experience influence your thinking about what is important in education? What insights did you gain? How have those insights influenced choices you have made since then? What symbols best capture the essence of the experience and what it taught you?

Source: Bennett et al., Op. Cit., 3-47.

REFLECTION CARD #3

"I touch the future. I teach."
Christa McAuliffe

Teachers tremendously impact the lives of students. Think back to when you were a student in school. Reflect on the **teachers who played a significant role in your development** during those years.

Select one teacher to think about in detail. Why was this teacher someone you valued? How did this teacher give meaningful direction to your life? What special qualities did this teacher possess? How has this teacher influenced your beliefs about what is important in teaching and learning? What symbols would you use to reflect the qualities that this teacher shared with others?

Source: Bennett et al., Op. Cit., 3-47.

REFLECTION CARD #4

"Progress always involves risks. You
can't steal second and keep your foot on first."
Frederick Wilcox

What **risks** have you taken as an educator in your quest to enhance teaching and learning? Perhaps you have taken some big risks (like making a decision that placed your job on the line), and some smaller ones (like inviting a colleague who does not usually participate in professional development to join you). Regardless, by risking, you changed the status quo. Reflect on the variety of risks you have taken.

Select one risk experience that really paid off to think about in detail. What did you do? How did you feel? What valuable lessons did you learn from the experience? How did the experience influence your perceptions about what is important in education? What symbols would illustrate the essence of the experience?

Source: Bennett et al., Op. Cit., 3-47.

REFLECTION CARD #5

"Every exceptional leader is a learner."
David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson

Reflect on individuals whom you admire as leaders -- in our world; in your community; in education; or in your district, school, or classroom. Some may be well known (such as political figures, entertainers, or athletes), while others may be relatively unknown (such as friends, family members, colleagues, or former teachers).

Select one **leader you particularly respect** to think about in detail. Why do you respect this person so much? What special qualities does this person exhibit? How does this person affect the lives of others? How has this person shaped your beliefs about leadership and your role as a leader in education? What do you believe are the three most important qualities a leader should possess? Why? What symbols capture those qualities?

Source: Bennett et al., Op. Cit., 3-47.

"WE BELIEVE . . ."

ACTIVITY 3-3

UNDERSTANDING AND CELEBRATING DIVERSITY

***Purpose(s)*:** To understand the breadth of diversity in society and schools and gain an active appreciation for its strengths

***Materials*:** Directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 3-C, enough copies of the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Articles on Diversity" for each participant, newsprint, easels, markers, pencils or pens, and enough copies of the following articles for each participant:

> "Educating Poor Minority Children" by James P. Comer. November 1988. In *Scientific American* 259 (5): 42-48.
>
> "Finding Reality Among the Myths: Why What You Thought About Sex Equity in Education Isn't So" by Glen Harvey. March 1986. In *Phi Delta Kappan* 67 (7): 509-511.
>
> "Reconceiving Academic Instruction for the Children of Poverty" by Michael S. Knapp and Patrick M. Shields. June 1990. In *Phi Delta Kappan* 71 (10): 753-758.
>
> "The Gender Issue" by Nel Noddings. Autumn 1986. In *Educational Leadership* 49 (4): 65-70.
>
> "The Journey from Male-Defined to Gender-Balanced Education" by Mary Kay Thompson Tetreault. Autumn 1986. In *Theory Into Practice* 25 (4): 227-234.

***Trainer's Notes*:** Please refer to the directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 3-C on page 3-265. Deviation from the general directions is noted below.

Diversity encompasses several dimensions, including race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, culture, gender, and sexual orientation. These articles, which address some of these dimensions, are meant to broaden the reader's perspective. The concepts presented in the articles will come alive only through relating them to the participants' experiences. Therefore, the questions recommended for participants to ponder, while reading the articles, ask them to determine how the main themes of the articles affect them.

You may wish to have the focus questions on newsprint, an overhead, or on a separate piece of paper that can be distributed so that participants can refer to them during their reading. You may also find it helpful to share the articles with participants in advance. This will allow for more thoughtful reading, more time for sharing in expert groups, and will make this activity less time-consuming.

***Process/Steps*:**

1. Review the purpose of a jigsaw activity -- to provide a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about topics that have been selected. In this case, the topic is diversity.

2. Share the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Articles on Diversity." These will offer participants a focus to their reading.

3. Have participants form home groups of five. Then, have each member of the home group choose an article, or assign one to them.

4. If participants have not read the articles prior to the activity, have them read their articles and answer the questions independently.

5. Then, have them form homogeneous or expert groups. These participants have all read the same article. Have them discuss, identify, and record on newsprint:

   - major themes of their article;
   - implications of these themes to their mentoring relationship or mentoring relationships in general; and
   - a strategy or thought that will assist them in building a relationship with new teachers.

6. Have participants return to their home groups. Then, have experts share one major theme, one implication, and a thought or strategy that will assist them in building a relationship with new teachers.

***Time Required*:** 60-120 minutes

FOCUS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION OF ARTICLES ON DIVERSITY

1. What are the major themes of your article?

2. What are the implications of these themes to your mentoring relationship or mentoring relationships in general?

3. What thought or strategy, which you have gained today, will you take back to assist you in building your relationship with new teachers?

ACTIVITY 3-4

READING OURSELVES AND OTHERS: A CULTURAL FACTOR

Purpose(s): To help mentors understand that everyone has a culture, introduce them to some cultural differences beyond their own cultural domains, and provide them with a framework with which they can begin exploring new meanings of ways people behave and communicate

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor" and "Focus Questions for Discussion of Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor" for each participant, overhead entitled "The Systems," overhead projector and screen, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: The handout "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor" provides different interpretations of observable behaviors with the intent of raising self-awareness of how we decode these behaviors. By expanding the meaning of some behaviors and creating dissonance in the way some situations are interpreted, the information included in the handout can assist mentors in:

- helping new teachers cope with situations where cultural diversity is the norm;
- opening communication between mentors and new teachers regarding issues of cultural differences between themselves; and
- providing background information and discussion.

It can also be used as a tool for reflection that helps uncover learned or acquired biases toward differences and alleviates feelings of discomfort and dislike in situations in which cultural differences impair communication.

The handout should be used to assist mentors in taking the first steps in a journey to discover some cultural factors in each of them.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to think about an experience they had while visiting another country or another community in which they felt uncomfortable or unsure of what was going on, an experience that was undoubtedly caused by a cross-cultural mismatch or miscommunication. It could even be a situation that was regarded as annoying, embarrassing, stupid, etc. Ask them to reconstruct the details in their minds and make notes of their own feelings at the time.
2. Ask participants to share their experience with a partner.
3. Ask for volunteers to share their own experiences with the rest of the group.

4. Brainstorm with the whole group the different feelings experienced. Ask them if they still feel that way. (Most will regard the experience as funny, although it did not feel funny at the time).

5. Distribute the handout "Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor" to the participants and ask them to read it silently.

6. In groups of four, ask each participant to go back to his or her experience and discuss the questions on the handout "Focus Questions for Discussion of Reading Ourselves and Others: A Cultural Factor." You may want to use the overhead "The Systems" to guide discussion.

Time Required: 90 minutes

READING OURSELVES AND OTHERS: A CULTURAL FACTOR

> **Culture is a system of systems . . . a completely different way of organizing life, of thinking, and of conceiving the underlying assumptions about the family and the state, the economic system and even of man himself[sic] . . . Culture controls behavior in deep and persisting ways, many of which are outside of awareness and therefore beyond conscious control of the individual (Hall 1959, 46 and 48).**

Are Communication and Learning Culture-Free Processes?

Communication is a multifaceted process central to teaching and learning. Heeding both verbal and nonverbal cues is critical to effective communication. Although language or verbal communication has historically received more attention, the complexity of communication requires a deeper, more balanced look at nonverbal communication, as it can constitute up to 90 percent of the meaning conveyed (Hall 1982; Pedersen 1988).

The critical aspects of nonverbal communication are easily overlooked because of their intangible nature. In situations where two people from different backgrounds interact, communication can break down or be misconstrued due to misreading nonverbal cues, not necessarily because of the linguistic incompetence of one or both of the parties. Breakdowns in communication due to differences in reading certain cultural cues are more difficult to identify when both parties share the same language. Speakers of a common language assume that there are common cultural rules for interaction. Misreadings of this nature can happen, for instance, when a white middle-class teacher interacts with urban African-American or Native American students or when a Hispanic teacher interacts with a Hispanic student from a different background.

The meanings attributed to the nonverbal dimension of communication are culturally bound, that is, their intentions, expectations, and values can only be understood and interpreted accurately through the cultural perspective of the person who exhibits them. Similar behavior may not have the same meaning in different cultures. This creates a problem. If culture is a codified system that functions out of awareness, how then can an outsider accurately identify the obstacles that stand in the way of interacting with someone from another culture? The determination of when and if a misunderstanding stems from incompatible cultural orientations is difficult because of the very nature of the subject being examined.

What are some of the systems within cultures that play a significant role in transmitting meaning nonverbally? Anthropology has identified systems within cultures that help in interpreting differences in behavior. Every culture has its own unwritten rules for each one of the subsystems.

Monochronism versus *polychronism* refers to the ordering of the interaction (taking turns), the ordering of tasks, or the concept of time. Some anthropologists called it sequential versus simultaneous. Hall traces monochronic or sequential behavior to Northern European cultures and polychronism or simultaneous to Mediterranean and African civilizations. Although there are differences within any given culture, it would be overly simplistic to label any particular culture with being strictly one or the other. However, it does seem that different cultures have strong preferences for either side of the continuum.

Examples:

1. Monochronic cultures tend to be very sequential in their thinking and actions. They are people who feel it is important to take turns when talking in a group. They look at their watches quite often and may feel hungry because it is noon.

2. Polychronic cultures tend to order interaction and conversation differently from monochronic cultures. In polychronic cultures, the flow of conversation can include more than two people at the same time (simultaneity), for example, a group of people would be conversing as a group or a collective body. In this group conversation -- as opposed to the one-on-one, linear interaction of monochronic cultures -- interruptions are allowed and expected. To the eyes and ears of an outsider, polychronicity can be a very confusing, chaotic, or even rude situation.

   In classrooms in which a large number of students are polychronic, throughout the course of a lesson, there will be more dialogue between students and with the teacher at the same time. Since polychronicity is group oriented, students with this cultural orientation tend to do extremely well in cooperative learning situations. Individualized competitive contexts seem to have a stronger negative impact on children of polychronic cultures.

3. Polychronic cultures tend to relate to time in an "external" way. That is, time is a concept that is flexible and can be controlled by the individual, as opposed to the individual being controlled by it. This is especially true in informal and social situations, i.e., setting a time for a party to end seems to contradict the very essence of the event in some cultures. In monochronic cultures, time is an internalized and exact concept that drives the sequence of events regardless of situation.

Kinesics is the movement of the body, gestures, facial expressions, or a way of carrying oneself. Every culture has rules for communicating using gestures, facial expressions (or the lack of them), and body movement. The same gesture may have different meanings in other cultures. A misreading involving kinesics can cause irreparable damage in cross-cultural interactions. Misreadings in the context of schooling often yield referrals for misbehavior and/or special services.

Examples:

1. A gesture such as a smile is thought in Western culture to be a universal way to convey happiness. In Southeast Asian culture, a smile has different meanings. It can be used to "save face," convey politeness, or cover feelings of embarrassment, anger, or confusion (Vogel Zanger 1985). In Puerto Rican culture, a smile has additional meanings. It can be used as a greeting, instead of a verbal "Hi" or "Good Morning" (Nine-Curt 1976).

2. Nodding in Southeast Asian cultures is a signal that lets the speaker know that the person is listening and interested in what is being said. The "uh-huh," sometimes also accompanied by nodding, serves the same purpose in North America and elsewhere. In both situations, the action employed extends the conversation.

3. The gesture of joining the index finger and the thumb to form a circle means "terrific" or "excellent" in the context of American culture. In other countries, it can mean "zero," or worse, it can have sexual and insulting connotations. Every culture has its own hand, head, or eye gestures that convey approval or disapproval, signal "quiet" or "I can't hear," express disbelief or exasperation, or give offense. To a person of another culture, these signs may go unnoticed or be mystifying, uninterpretable, or misinterpreted.

Proxemics refers to the unwritten rules about handling space and territoriality (personal and community), for example, the physical distance at which a person feels comfortable engaging in conversation with another. The use of public space is also culturally defined.

Examples:

1. Some cultures, Hispanic and Mediterranean, for example, define "comfortable zones" for engaging in conversation much smaller than others. For an American, some Hispanics may seem "pushy," much too familiar, or even insulting while speaking. In the eyes of Hispanics, Americans may seem cold, distant, and untrustworthy.

2. Rules that govern intrusion into personal space also have cultural correlations. In some group-oriented cultures, rules for interrupting conversations and borrowing/lending personal (not intimate) items (pens, pencils, eraser, etc.) are more flexible than in others. In largely Hispanic classrooms, borrowing certain items like paper, pens, or crayons without notifying the owner or explicitly asking for them is a common and widely accepted practice.

Haptics refers to the rules that govern who, when, how, and where touching another person is or is not allowed as part of the communicative activity.

Examples:

1. Touching or patting the head of a child is very offensive in some Southeast Asian and Indian cultures, for it is believed to disrupt the natural flow of energy or connection with the higher power. For this reason, the head is considered a very sacred part of the body.

2. Touching and patting the backside, as in the case of American football players, is seen by some cultures as a sign of homosexuality. In the American macroculture (mainstream or majority), it can be highly offensive when done by a man to a woman.

3. In some cultures, it is common for members of the same sex to hold hands while walking. This behavior means nothing more than a friendship gesture. The same behavior, when displayed by Vietnamese males during the Vietnam war, was misconstrued by American GIs as a sign of homosexuality. The same behavior can be seen among young Hispanic or Japanese females in American schools.

Oculistics is the handling of eye movement or interpreting the meaning of direct and indirect eye contact. Its rules define the length and value of any given eye contact exchange.

In the American macroculture, children are taught at a very early age to look people in the eye to show attention, respect, and alertness. Many other children around the world and in different social settings in the United States are receiving a different set of meanings for the same behavior.

Examples:

Many children -- including Native American, African-American, and Hispanic students -- may or may not look directly at the person who is speaking. This behavior has several explanations:

- It is not necessary to show you are attentive by looking at the speaker. If the speaker is at a close distance, within an audible range, there is no need to look up. Sometimes a short glance at the opening of the interaction is enough. Direct eye contact for extended periods of time is a challenging, insulting behavior in some cultures. It could also convey disrespect, anger, or disregard for an authority figure. This may be true with some African-American, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American children and some adults.

- If the listener looks the speaker directly in the eye for a span of time (length is also culturally determined), it means the "looker" is angry and willing to confront the other person.

- The behavior is considered impolite, rude, and insulting, so children avoid direct eye contact to show respect, especially for authority figures.

- There are cases where direct eye contact between members of the opposite sex are misconstrued to mean acceptance of sexual advances.

NOTES: The depictions and examples provided, although based on documented research, should not be interpreted as rigid parameters for interpreting behaviors within specific cultures. To do so would not only be simplistic and stereotypical but also would be contrary to the very intention of providing a "different set of lenses" with which to view and question the reality that surrounds them. To generalize is a failure to recognize people as individuals or acknowledge the myriad of differences (or subsystems) that exist within given cultures.

It is important to keep in mind that while most of our belief systems, value orientations, and out-of-awareness behaviors are the consequences of living in a societal context, both the societal contexts and our own humanness are dynamic entities that are constantly changing and affecting each other.

Cross-cultural interaction training has been a central theme in international studies for many years. Attention to nonverbal aspects or systems of interactions are becoming the focus of training for businesspeople in large multinational companies. Some school systems, which are feeling the impact of large numbers of immigrants or have a staff that is ethnically or racially different from its student population (large numbers of African-American or Native American children), are providing professional development in the areas of cultural awareness and cross-cultural interactions. For the business world, these interventions have paid off in smoother transactions with businesses in other countries. For schools, the benefits have resulted in better relationships with the community; an increase in teacher effectiveness that, in turn, has positively impacted student achievement; and better racial and ethnic relations.

FOCUS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION OF READING OURSELVES AND OTHERS: A CULTURAL FACTOR

1. Do you think your experience stemmed from a mismatch in one of the cultural systems discussed in the handout? Which one?

2. Do you think it would have helped you to have information that enabled you to better understand the situation?

3. What are the implications of this knowledge when faced with situations in which mentors and new teachers are from culturally different backgrounds, mentors are mentoring new teachers who face cultural diversity in their classrooms, or mentors are teaching in settings that are becoming more diverse?

THE SYSTEMS

A. Language (35%)

B. Nonverbal (65%)

   1. Kinesics -- Movement
   2. Proxemics -- Space
   3. Haptics -- Touching
   4. Oculistics -- Eyes
   5. Polychronism versus Monochronism
   6. Silence versus Noise
   7. Dress
   8. Artifacts

C. Values

(Note: Silence versus noise, dress, artifacts, and values have been included for the purpose of demonstrating that the systems are quite complex and inclusive of other expressions not mentioned in the reading.)

ACTIVITY 3-5

TAKING THE PULSE ON YOUR RELATIONSHIP: A CHECKLIST FOR MENTORS

Purpose(s): To aid mentors in reflecting on important aspects of their relationship with a new teacher

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: In a training session, assuming that the participants have had no previous experience with mentoring, the checklist can be used as an exercise to self-assess. The activity can be used at any time during the mentoring relationship and as often as needed. Although the checklist is intended for the personal use of the mentor, sharing the findings with other mentors can open new opportunities for growth by providing avenues for discussion and sharing.

Process/Steps:

1. Introduce the handout "Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors" as an activity that will help the mentor stop and reflect upon his or her behaviors, actions, and attitudes in a given mentoring relationship. Tell participants that the checklist is for their own personal use, but that sharing it in a safe environment can yield positive results in terms of growth and development.

2. Ask participants to take time to read silently all of the items in the checklist and then respond. Then, have them go back to identify those items for which they can provide a hypothetical scenario, i.e., an example of what "it" would look like in the real world.

3. Ask participants to form groups of three. Ask the groups to choose at least three behaviors that would confirm each item on the checklist and then list them on a piece of paper. For example, under "I offer constructive feedback based on observational data," participants could list strategies or vocabulary that would attest to this behavior.

4. Discuss the use of the instrument as a personal tool and a discussion prompter with participants. Brainstorm other uses.

Time Required: 90 minutes

TAKING THE PULSE ON YOUR RELATIONSHIP: A CHECKLIST FOR MENTORS

N* S* F* A* (*NOTE: N=never, S=sometimes, F=frequently, A=always)

___ ___ ___ ___ I accept the teacher as a unique individual.

___ ___ ___ ___ I help the teacher feel he or she belongs in the school and in the profession.

___ ___ ___ ___ I show confidence in the teacher.

___ ___ ___ ___ I let the teacher know I care about him or her.

___ ___ ___ ___ I make the teacher feel he or she has something to contribute.

___ ___ ___ ___ I sense that the teacher is comfortable bringing problems to me.

___ ___ ___ ___ I let the teacher express his or her feelings and ideas.

___ ___ ___ ___ I live up to the agreements we have made.

___ ___ ___ ___ I hold inviolate confidential information about the new teacher.

___ ___ ___ ___ I provide him or her with resources for developing constructive ideas.

___ ___ ___ ___ I offer constructive feedback based on observational data.

___ ___ ___ ___ I respectfully and actively listen to and consider his or her point of view.

___ ___ ___ ___ I continually seek to improve my ability to assess others in a just and impartial way.

___ ___ ___ ___ I refrain from negative comments and making misinformed judgments about others.

___ ___ ___ ___ I treat the new teacher without prejudice.

___ ___ ___ ___ I continually seek to improve my professional and interpersonal skills.

___ ___ ___ ___ I model self-reflection.

___ ___ ___ ___ I nurture the teacher's self-reflection.

___ ___ ___ ___ I volunteer my special skills.

___ ___ ___ ___ I am proud of my profession.

___ ___ ___ ___ I evaluate the attitudes and activities of the new teacher with an open mind.

___ ___ ___ ___ I encourage personal and professional growth of this teacher.

___ ___ ___ ___ I am kind and tolerant.

ACTIVITY 3-6

HOPES AND FEARS: A LETTER TO MYSELF

Purpose(s): To help new mentors set appropriate goals for the upcoming year

Materials: Paper, envelopes, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is designed to help anticipate success and to express any concerns about the responsibility of mentoring that the new mentors are about to undertake. It will be most effective after the completion of initial mentor training and either before or very soon after mentors have been matched with new teachers. This exercise is meant to promote quiet reflection and will have the most impact if comments and conversation do not occur at this time. Those participants who are reticent to write may need some additional encouragement. The letters are meant to be personal and private. However, at the end of the year's experience, their contents could become a powerful source of open, voluntary sharing and reflection.

Process/Steps:

1. Distribute paper and envelopes to all mentors.

2. Ask mentors to write a letter to themselves addressing the following questions:

    - What do you hope for yourself and the new teacher(s) you will be mentoring this coming year?
    - What concerns and fears lurk at the beginning of this experience?

3. Have the participants address the letters to themselves, put the letters into the envelope, seal the envelope, and put their name on the outside of it. Collect the envelopes.

4. Prior to the final mentor meeting of the school year, mail or deliver these letters to their owners.

5. Ask mentors to voluntarily share portions of their letters with other mentors and openly reflect on the successes and frustrations of their experience.

    - Were their hopes realized?
    - Were their fears realistic?

6. In the large group, discuss the impact of these hopes and fears on:

    - the preparation of mentor training;
    - program development;
    - the mentor/new teacher match; and
    - other components of the program, as well as the program's overall success.

Time Required: 30 minutes initially; undetermined for follow-up

ACTIVITY 3-7

SETTING EXPECTATIONS

Purpose(s):	To reflect on and create a clear statement of expectations for a mentoring relationship
Materials:	Enough copies of the handout "Example of a Mentor's Expectations" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens
Trainer's Notes:	This activity is a logical extension of Activity 3-5, "Taking the Pulse on Your Relationship: A Checklist for Mentors" and Activity 3-6, "Hopes and Fears: A Letter to Myself." When mentors write their expectations, they model what new teachers need to consider if the pair is to have a shared focus and an effective relationship.

Process/Steps:

1. Discuss why it is important to be clear about one's expectations for a mentoring relationship.
2. Ask participants to read the handout "Example of a Mentor's Expectations."
3. Ask participants to discuss their reactions.
4. Give participants a blank piece of paper and ask them to draft their expectations for a mentoring relationship.
5. Ask participants to share and discuss their responses, questions, and concerns with another mentor.
6. In the large group, identify strategies to use in helping new teachers develop their own expectations.

Time Required: 60 minutes

EXAMPLE OF A MENTOR'S EXPECTATIONS

These are my expectations for our mentoring relationship. As your mentor:

I will be available to you.

I will help, support, and encourage you in managing and mastering the following areas of school work:

- quality and quantity of work;
- work habits and procedures;
- business and housekeeping routines; and
- interpersonal behavior.

We will work together to solve problems regarding issues that are important to you and issues that are important to me for the development of your career in teaching.

We will treat each other with collegial respect, keeping our commitments to each other, for example, appointments, assignments, and agreed-upon expectations.

I will observe you teaching and provide you with objective data that will help inform your teaching practice.

We will practice reflective teaching and interviewing each other.

Although I do not have "the answers," I will help you frame the questions that will lead you to your own answers and questions.

I will share with you and demonstrate what I have learned about teaching.

I will treat everything that transpires in our mentoring relationship with confidentiality, within the reasonable bounds upon which we have agreed.

We will learn from and with each other.

Source: Saphier and Gower, Op. Cit., 3-6.

ACTIVITY 3-8

THE NITTY GRITTY: WHAT DO NEW TEACHERS REALLY NEED TO KNOW IN OUR SCHOOLS?

Purpose(s): To create a list of "essentials" (notes on facility, personnel, responsibilities, and first-day considerations) that help orient new teachers to a school site

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "First-Day Considerations," "First-Week Considerations," "First-Month Considerations," and "Beginning Teacher Calendar Checklist" for each participant; newsprint; easels; and markers

Trainer's Notes: This activity is intended to have mentors recall and generate information necessary for new teachers. Ready-made lists are available, *but* the usefulness of this task lies in creating a list of taken-for-granted "stuff" that teachers know and do. The handouts "First-Day Considerations," "First-Week Considerations," "First-Month Considerations," and "Beginning Teacher Calendar Checklist" -- when shared at the end of the activity -- can serve to validate the participants' work.

This activity can be organized in different ways depending on the size and composition of the group. If there are mentors from one site or one district, they might be grouped together so that information can be site-specific. However, it also works if groups consist of mentors from different school sites. Each group can tackle each category separately or the categories can be divided among the groups and the separate lists shared later with the whole group. In addition, as described below, the activity can be done as a carousel brainstorming task in which participants move in round-robin fashion from category to category until everyone has had a chance to add to each category.

Mentors know much of this information instinctively. Helping them think back to their initial year makes generating these lists easier. What do they wish they knew when they began that they could now share with a new teacher?

If additional staff is available, it is always nice to have the lists (that were generated on newsprint) typed, copied, and distributed to participants before the session ends. The information generated in Step 6 will be helpful in planning training for new teachers throughout the year.

Process/Steps:

1. In the large group, generate a list of categories of information that new teachers might need to know about a new school, for example, the school plant, necessary routines or procedures, school personnel and their duties, procedures and ideas for the first day, regular meetings and events throughout the year, substitute procedures, and referrals to resources. Mount these headings on newsprint around the room.

2. Ask participants to form small groups of three to five, and assign each group a specific category with which to begin.

3. Once groups have been assigned a specific category, give them five minutes to identify information that new teachers need to know or have about that category. After five minutes, have each group move clockwise or counterclockwise to the next category on newsprint. Have groups spend five minutes at the second sheet of newsprint, adding information to that category. This process continues until each group has had an opportunity to respond to each category.

4. When groups have returned to their original starting place, have them identify and record essential documents for that category (for example, a school and/or district map; directory of personnel and roles; school calendar; daily schedule; sample referral and other forms; parent, student, and faculty handbooks) that can be compiled in packets to be given to new teachers.

5. Discuss briefly with the whole group other areas in which new teachers might need assistance, for example, establishing the classroom environment, instructional planning, student assessment, professional development opportunities, or preparing for parent meetings.

6. List these items on the left side of a sheet of newsprint. On the right-hand side, indicate at what point during the school year mentors might best approach new teachers to offer assistance in these areas.

7. Share the handouts "First-Day Considerations," "First-Week Considerations," "First-Month Considerations," and "Beginning Teacher Calendar Checklist" for adaption by these participants.

Time Required: 90 minutes

FIRST-DAY CONSIDERATIONS

- Be overprepared.
- Make all students feel welcome in your classroom.
- Be sure everyone in your classroom knows the layout of the school and playground, and where to line up.
- Be as aware as you can of what is going on in your classroom throughout the day. Don't let behavior problems begin.
- Begin to talk about rules.
- Celebrate your successes.
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Source: Reprinted with permission of the Oregon Department of Education from *The Beginning Teacher Handbook*. (c) 1990.

FIRST-WEEK CONSIDERATIONS

- Gear plans so that all students will feel successful.
- Make time each day to teach and reinforce rules and procedures.
- Spend time discussing when to talk and when not to talk.
- Go over hallway and assembly expectations.
- Be overprepared.
- Write the daily schedule on the board.
- Reinforce expectations.
- Post basic procedures or expectations.
- Celebrate your successes.
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Source: Oregon Department of Education, Op. Cit., 3-75.

FIRST-MONTH CONSIDERATIONS

- Celebrate your successes -- feel confident that you are capable and in charge.
- Implement your rules, procedures, and management systems during the entire month.
- Reinforce expectations.
- Respond quickly when expectations are not met.
- Be consistent.
- Model what you expect from your students.
- Grade, record, and return those papers you feel important for feedback as soon as possible.
- Teach skills of independence as the need arises, for example, what to do when students need help and the teacher is not available, when to sharpen pencils and renew supplies.
- Give concise and accurate directions before starting lessons or assignments.
- Provide options for learning, teaching, and student practice.
- Enjoy your new career and class.
- Take care of yourself.
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Source: Oregon Department of Education, Op. Cit., 3-75.

BEGINNING TEACHER CALENDAR CHECKLIST

AUGUST/SEPTEMBER

School and Its People

___ Meet with administrator and mentor teacher to discuss questions.

___ Meet grade level/department members and key resource people (team leader, department chair, mentor teacher, librarian, office manager, aides, secretaries, counselors, custodians, etc.).

___ Acquire copies of pertinent school materials (faculty handbook, student handbook, school calendar, student policy materials, school map, bell schedules, etc.).

___ Acquire copies of necessary forms (referrals, attendance, hall passes, etc.).

___ Know the physical setup of the school and the location of key facilities (staff rest rooms, staff phones, AV areas, professional library, copy machines, staff lounge).

___ Ask about procedures for lunch, coffee, etc.

___ Obtain copy of class/teacher schedules, extra duty responsibilities.

Materials

___ Acquire course guides, curriculum guides, class outlines, goal statements, etc., for each subject assigned.

___ Ask department members for details about particular units, texts, etc.

___ Locate needed textbooks and supplementary materials.

___ Get the necessary supplies to begin the year (tape, staples, construction paper, etc.).

Source: Oregon Department of Education, Op. Cit., 3-75.

Planning

___ Become acquainted with the district and school philosophy and policy about discipline.

___ Formulate a standard for student behavior in the classroom.

___ Establish a set of procedures for classroom routines (passing out materials, taking attendance, collecting assignments, etc.).

___ Set up the classroom (seating arrangements, supplies area, assignment baskets, bulletin boards, etc.).

___ Develop long-range general plans for the first quarter (units, time lines, film orders, etc.).

___ Choose a workable plan book format.

___ Outline specific first-week lesson plans.

Grades and Records

___ Become acquainted with school and district philosophy/polices regarding grading, homework, attendance, etc.

___ Set up a grade book that includes all necessary areas: daily grades, test grades, attendance, etc. (use a permanent class list).

___ Inquire about any other records needed.

___ Develop a system for keeping track of parent contacts, discipline referrals, etc.

Community Relations

___ Consider ways to communicate with parents on a regular basis.

___ Become aware of the many ways parents are involved with the school, i.e., volunteers, parent club, local school advisory committee.

Professional Growth

___ Attend new/beginning teacher district meeting.

___ Know about the professional development opportunities.

OCTOBER/NOVEMBER/DECEMBER

School Schedule

___ Look into teacher workdays for planning or grading.

___ Find out about holiday preparations -- decorations, parties, projects, assemblies.

___ Participate in home/school communications -- open house, parent conferences.

___ Be aware of additional duties -- holiday programs, student activities.

Student Progress

___ Check the time lines, format, and procedures for reporting midterm student progress.

___ Learn about pupil assessment, records, grades.

___ Learn about report card procedures.

___ Learn about student referral procedures.

Professional Development

___ Look into statewide professional development activities.

___ Attend new teachers' workshop.

___ Look into membership in professional organizations.

JANUARY

End of Semester

___ Find out about semester exams.

___ Record semester grades/report cards.

___ Reflect on the first semester.

___ Prepare long-range general plans for second semester.

___ Streamline planning activities and assembling instructional materials.

___ Make plans for spring break.

FEBRUARY/MARCH/APRIL

School Schedule

___ Prepare for patriotic holiday observances.

___ Attend new teachers' workshop.

___ Take spring vacation.

Standardized Testing

___ Examine copies of testing materials and teacher editions.

___ Know the school's testing schedule and the teacher's role in administering the tests.

___ Become aware of the test data and how you will be expected to interpret it.

MAY/JUNE

School Schedule

___ Learn about school/district policies regarding special end-of-year activities, assemblies, and parties.

___ Find out about school schedule for the final weeks of school.

Pupil Assessment

___ Record procedures for second semester/end-of-year grades and student records.

___ Review school policy and procedures for student promotion.

Closing School

___ Prepare room for summer.

___ Store materials and equipment.

___ Return textbooks.

___ Pay fees and fines.

___ Celebrate the successful end of your first year.

Professional Development Pursuits

___ Take summer workshops, coursework, and verify certification requirements.

___ Prepare material for next year.

___ Refine instructional plans to be delivered again.

ACTIVITY 3-9

I' D LIKE YOU TO MEET . . . : INTRODUCING THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY

Purpose(s): To create a contextual "portrait" of the history, atmosphere, and dynamics of the school setting to acclimate new teachers

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Portrait of Our School" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is best done with a group of mentors from one school. If there is a mixed group, sharing can be done at the end, but each site needs to work individually to construct its "portrait."

Participants who complete a "portrait" of their school should be encouraged to share it with colleagues who are not present, and revise it with their input.

Process/Steps:

1. Explain to participants that schools, like classes, have a collective personality. Getting to know a school is much like becoming acquainted with a stranger. This activity is intended to create a written description (portrait) of this new personage to help acclimate the new teacher.

2. Ask participants to individually list some characteristics or qualities that describe their school.

3. Share some of these aloud.

4. Distribute the handout "Portrait of Our School" and let participants begin to make notes to themselves as they respond to the questions. Remind them to be as descriptive as possible and to avoid judgmental or derogatory remarks. Use terms that would elicit a sense or a feeling about the life of this institution. It would be fair to include a note about any inherent bias one holds.

5. Allow individuals a "free write" period -- approximately 15 minutes -- to create a portrait of their own school, including ideas from the handout.

6. Ask participants to form small groups of two or three to share their portraits. Address these questions:

   - Were you surprised in any way by your description?
   - Have you given a fair introduction of your setting to a new teacher?
   - Would you choose to work there again?

Time Required: 90 minutes

PORTRAIT OF OUR SCHOOL

Use these questions to generate characteristics and qualities that are important to include in the portrait of your school:

1. How would you describe the student population?

2. What are the predominant characteristics of the parents?

3. How would you describe the community?

4. How would you describe the professional teaching staff? Other staff?

5. Are there any significant events in the school's history that account for its "personality?"

6. What is the atmosphere of the school? What do you sense when you enter?

7. Is there a characteristic pace to the school day/school year?

8. How does it feel to live and work in this environment?

9. Is there a particular analogy, metaphor, or personification that could be used to illustrate the "essence" of this school?

ACTIVITY 3-10

CHARTING NEW TEACHERS' NEEDS

Purpose(s): To engage mentors in an action research project that focuses on the changing needs of new teachers and experienced newcomers throughout the year

Materials: Newsprint, easels, markers, blank paper, pencils or pens, and enough copies of the following articles for each participant:

> "Functional Approach to Identification of New Teacher Needs in an Induction Context" by Sandra J. Odell, Catherine E. Loughlin, and Douglas P. Ferraro. 1987. In *Action in Teacher Education* 8 (4): 51-57.
>
> "Characteristics of Beginning Teachers in an Induction Context" by Sandra J. Odell. 1989. In *Teacher Induction*, edited by Judy Reinhartz. Washington, DC: National Education Association (pp. 42-50).

Trainer's Notes: This activity should be introduced to mentors during the orientation or training session prior to the beginning of school. It is intended to be completed throughout the year and provides an action research project that reinforces the major theories of adult development and change. Due to a new mentor's stages of concern, it is recommended that this activity be used by experienced mentors or pairs of mentors (one experienced and one new).

Much of the work will be done by mentors in isolation, but it is suggested that the activity be initiated and the results of the individual work be analyzed in a peer support group. The results of the analysis would be valuable in revising professional development activities for new teachers and experienced newcomers.

A critical part of this activity involves reading one or both of the articles listed under the materials above. If the mentors have read one or both of the articles for an earlier activity, have them begin by reviewing the major themes of the articles and then move to Step 2. In this instance, the time required for the activity will be shortened.

You may also wish to review the section "How Is the Assistance Mentors Provide Determined by the Changing Needs of New Teachers?" in Chapter 2 (on page 2-9). It might also be helpful to skim the major theories regarding adult development and the change process in Chapter 1, particularly in relation to new teachers.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to briefly write (three to five minutes) about how they felt at three points during their first year of teaching: the first few weeks, early January, and the final

weeks of school. Ask participants to share their responses, and record their comments in three columns on newsprint.

2. Ask participants to discuss common themes or patterns they observe in the comments.

3. Distribute copies of each article to participants.

4. Ask participants to form pairs and have each person read one of the two articles. After reading the article, ask each pair to combine with another pair to form groups of four to discuss the benefits of conducting activities similar to what the article describes with their new teachers. Record these benefits on newsprint. Then, work with them to plan the process and a time line for the activity.

5. Two weeks after the action research project has been initiated, meet with mentors to identify any challenges they have encountered. In peer support groups of four to six, mentors can suggest possible solutions to the challenges they have encountered.

6. In early October, meet with mentors to discuss the progress of their action research project, identify changes they have made in their plan, and analyze any changes in the needs expressed by the new teachers. As a whole group, plan professional development activities to meet those needs.

7. In January, and again in May (or during the summer), conduct meetings similar in content to that held in October. During the last meeting of the year, ask mentors to design professional development activities for next year's group of new teachers, utilizing the results of their action research project.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes for each meeting

ACTIVITY 3-11

A WRINKLE IN TIME

Purpose(s): To identify the inhibiting and enabling forces around the issue of time -- time for the mentor and new teacher to meet, observe, share, and plan

Materials: Newsprint, easels, and markers

Trainer's Notes: This activity works best when mentors are unable to find time to meet with their new teachers, i.e., they are feeling frustrated at their inability to carry out their role as a mentor. It can prevent the group from being fixated on external systemic problems, for example, there is no time in the weekly schedule for mentors and new teachers to meet. It is important to remind participants that most external circumstances do not inhibit progress; rather it is their response to external circumstances that are the true inhibitors.

In Step 4, if an enabling factor is related to an inhibiting factor, they may be written beside each other. This can help the participants discover that there may be options to consider if they look beyond the obvious inhibitors.

This activity is not meant to resolve issues regarding time, but serves as a process to reframe the problem and allow participants to move past the feeling that finding time is impossible.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form groups of four to six and give each group a sheet of newsprint and a marker.

2. Ask participants to draw a vertical line that divides the newsprint into two halves. Label one half *inhibiting forces* and the other *enabling forces*.

3. Have each group identify a recorder. Ask the participants in each group to consider the things that work against finding time to carry out their role as a mentor, and record their responses on the "inhibiting" side of their newsprint.

4. Ask each group to consider the forces that would enable them to reframe the problem of finding time -- for example, proximity, creative scheduling -- and record their responses on the "enabling" side of the newsprint.

5. Have participants review their lists and note any observations and reactions.

6. In the large group, have each group share two or three of its observations.

Time Required: 45-60 minutes

Source: Adapted with permission of John Mason, Dean of Faculty, Tilton School, Tilton, NH.

ACTIVITY 3-12

PLANNING CLASSROOM LESSONS

Purpose(s): To give mentors and new teachers an opportunity to plan classroom and instructional organization

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Questions for Teachers to Consider in Planning and Conducting Classroom Lessons" for each participant, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is designed to give participants practice in planning classroom organization for classroom lessons. It is hoped that this kind of activity will enable teachers to identify what it is they want to happen in the classroom and to determine what actions they can take to influence the probability that this will happen. It is suggested that this activity be conducted with mentors first (Phase I). Then, it could be done with new teachers, having mentor teachers guide the new teachers through it (Phase II).

Process/Steps:

Phase I (Mentors)

1. Distribute the handout "Questions for Teachers to Consider in Planning and Conducting Classroom Lessons."
2. Review the questions on the handout with the group.
3. Ask participants to select a classroom event that they anticipate conducting.
4. Ask them to individually reflect on and generate answers to the questions on the handout.
5. Ask the participants to form small groups of three to five. Ask them to share their individual processes with other members of their small group.
6. In a large group, ask for reactions to this exercise, including any additional questions that the participants would incorporate into their planning process.

Phase II (Mentors and New Teachers)

1. Distribute the handout "Questions for Teachers to Consider in Planning and Conducting Classroom Lessons."
2. Review the questions on the handout with the participants.
3. Ask participants to select a classroom event that they anticipate conducting or an event that has already taken place that they may want to redo using the planning process.

4. Ask them to individually reflect on and generate answers to the questions on the handout.

5. Have mentors and new teachers meet to share their individual processes with each other.

6. In a large group, ask mentors and new teachers for their reactions to this exercise, including any additional questions that they would incorporate into their planning process.

Time Required: 90 minutes for each phase

QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS TO CONSIDER IN PLANNING AND CONDUCTING CLASSROOM LESSONS

What events will take place?

What are the academic expectations for student participation in each event?

1. What resources (for example, prior learning experiences both inside and outside the classroom) will students bring that can be used to help accomplish the task?

2. What sequence of events will help students acquire, practice, and apply concepts?

3. What "knowledge" will students be expected to demonstrate? What will "count" as appropriate knowledge?

What will the social expectations be for students' participation in each event?

1. How will groups (whole class, small group, pairs) be organized? How will expectations for participating vary within each group and across groups?

Source: Adapted with permission of The University of Chicago Press from "Classroom Management and Teaching Style: Instructional Stability in Two Junior High English Classrooms," by Carolyn M. Evertson and Regina Weade, *The Elementary School Journal* 89 (3): 379-393. (c) 1989 by The University of Chicago. All rights reserved.

2. How will turn taking (volunteering by hand raising, oral responses, calling out) be organized?

3. How will students be expected to demonstrate appropriate knowledge and procedures (for example, say the number, put the answer in their own words, read the complete sentence)?

4. What rules and procedures can be implemented that will help students in doing the academic task?

5. What prior experiences with doing the lessons (for example, quiz, review, discussion, introduction of new material) are shared by teacher and students? Which students do not share these experiences?

6. Will there be a tangible student product? What form will the product take (for example, completed assignment, journal entry, checked quiz paper, essay outline)? How will student products be collected and checked off?

How are academic and social expectations related? Do social expectations facilitate and support expectations for academic participation?

ACTIVITY 3-13

"DEBRIEFING" CLASSROOM LESSONS

Purpose(s): To reflect on teaching practice and improve classroom and instructional management

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Questions for Teachers to Consider in Planning and Conducting Classroom Lessons" on pages 3-91 to 3-92 for each participant, newsprint, easel, markers, VCR and videotape (optional), and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity should occur after participants have done the previous activity, "Activity 3-12: Planning Classroom Lessons." It may be done as a group, using a videotape of a lesson. If you use a videotape, it will be necessary to share the objectives of the lesson videotaped with participants. The videotape should not exceed 30 minutes.

It may be **most** appropriate for mentors and their new teachers to utilize this after an actual classroom event, either in the mentor's class (which the new teacher has observed) or in the new teacher's class (which the mentor observed).

If you follow the process/steps for mentors and new teachers working together, then you will need to change the tense used on the handout from future to past tense.

Process/Steps (if videotape is used):

1. Review the handout "Questions for Teachers to Consider in Planning and Conducting Classroom Lessons" with participants.
2. Describe the objectives of the videotaped lesson.
3. Run the videotape.
4. At the conclusion, ask participants to individually use the handout to make a determination about how the classroom event matched the teacher's expectations.
5. Ask participants to share their conclusions and record them on newsprint.

Process/Steps (if mentor and new teacher work together):

1. Using questions contained on the handout as a guide, ask the mentors and new teachers to review a lesson that either one of them observed.
2. Mentors and new teachers discuss and generate alternative instructional or management strategies as part of their debriefing discussion.

3. Ask participants to share their reflections with the whole group and record them on newsprint.

Time Required: 90 minutes (if using videotape); 60 minutes (without videotape)

ACTIVITY 3-14

WE' RE READY TO HELP: A COLLEGIAL COLLECTION OF RESOURCES FOR NEW TEACHERS

Purpose: To develop a resource list of site-based talents of the staff available to new teachers as an example of collegiality

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Some Critical Areas of Professional Knowledge for New Teachers" for each participant, overhead entitled "Some Critical Areas of Professional Knowledge for New Teachers," overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: This activity is recommended for an entire school staff or a portion thereof, in a group no larger than 12. Each group should contain one new teacher and be led by a mentor as a way of welcoming the new teacher. It could be done by a group of teachers in a close-knit district as well. If there is a mixed group of mentors, you might spend a brief time having participants reflect on the best resources in their school to offer assistance to new teachers in important areas.

Having people focus on their own talents and expertise often makes them feel uncomfortable, like "blowing their own horn." If this is a problem, we suggest that you encourage individuals to nominate others whom they know have special professional abilities.

Any list of resources prepared by a school's staff should be typed up and added to periodically as teachers develop other areas of expertise.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form groups of 10-12 so that those who work in proximity to each other and a new teacher are working together. These are the teachers most likely to be called on to offer assistance to new teachers.
2. Have members of the group consider some of the important areas of professional expertise that they might have to offer. Share with them the overhead and handout "Some Critical Areas of Professional Knowledge for New Teachers." Ask members of the group to add to the list.
3. Ask each participant (including the new teachers), in turn, to identify one area in which he or she feels a solid level of competence. Encourage each to talk briefly about how that interest originated and share the important elements of that area. This will give everyone a "flavor" of the knowledge that each member of the group possesses.
4. Have them list these names and areas on the newsprint.
5. Go around again until all areas of expertise are addressed or until the group members run out of knowledge areas to mention.

6. Celebrate the list by asking if anyone learned anything new, identifying new connections that have been made, and making the list public for everyone to share.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

SOME CRITICAL AREAS OF PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE FOR NEW TEACHERS

- Managing behavior in a classroom
- Designing classroom space
- Organizing time
- Managing stress
- Interacting with parents
- Assessing student work
- Developing certain instructional strategies
- Setting student expectations
- Resolving conflict
- Identifying classroom problems
- Conducting action research
- Others . . .
-
-

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- Organizing time
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- Setting student expectations
- Resolving conflict
- Identifying classroom problems
- Conducting action research
- Others . . .
-
-

ACTIVITY 3-15

RESPONSIVE VIEWING: A LOOK INSIDE CLASSROOMS

Purpose(s): To practice and discuss six methods of data collection in a cooperative learning format

Materials: Two VCRs and monitors, two videotapes of a classroom observation for learning centers 1 and 2, overheads of most of the observation tools, overhead projector and screen, six file folders (each folder contains directions and descriptive information for one of the six learning centers), blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: You will need to be familiar with the section on instructional leadership in Chapter 3; the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development's (ASCD) videotape series "Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation"; and the following data collection techniques: verbal flow, at task, class traffic, global scan, selective verbatim, and script taping. You will need to purchase videotapes, such as "Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation," or make two classroom observation tapes. More than one learning center can watch the same videotape to collect these data.

If you are working with a novice group, you may decide to select three or four learning centers to explore. Some participants are overwhelmed by six different techniques and prefer to get a better handle on just a few. If you are planning a two-day workshop, you may consider doing three techniques each day.

Prepare a file folder for each learning center prior to beginning this activity. The outside of each file folder should be numbered and labeled with the data collection method at that center, for example, Table 1, Verbal-Flow Technique; Table 2, At-Task Technique. Each learning center folder should contain directions for that learning center and enough copies of the following for each participant:

- handouts about the technique; and
- materials needed for that center, for example, blank paper, seating charts.

A round table with six to eight chairs around it should be set up for each technique used so that you can easily move through the room. One of the learning center folders should be placed on each table.

Source: Adapted with permission of Linda Gaidimas, Teaching Principal, Ogunquit Village School, Ogunquit, ME and Mary Bruns, Educational Consultant, Cape Elizabeth School District, Cape Elizabeth, ME.

The size and acoustics of the room can affect the tone of the workshop. The VCRs should be at opposite ends of the room, or one VCR may be in an adjoining room to cut down on the noise. If you use an adjoining room, you must be accessible to it to troubleshoot if needed.

The script in the selective verbatim center is designed to reinforce coaching skills. Some participants find it difficult to divorce the content of the script from the task of selective verbatim. Feel free to develop a classroom-based script that would complete the task.

Most of the materials for these centers are from ASCD's videotape series "Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation." This is a valuable resource for data collection techniques. These videotapes can be obtained from:

ASCD
Order Processing
1250 North Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314-1453
(703) 549-9110

If you choose to make your own classroom observation tapes, it is very important to secure permission of the teacher you are taping before using the tape.

Step 2 asks you to review each technique using prepared overhead transparencies. While there are overheads included in this activity, you may want to develop your own overheads for global scan, selective verbatim, and script taping. If, for example, this session is preceded by an introduction and/or announcements, you could develop -- on the spot -- an overhead for any one of these three techniques. The advantage of doing so is that you can model the technique for participants. In other words, you or a cofacilitator records your introduction (using the selective verbatim technique) while it is being delivered.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to begin by brainstorming the different types of data a new teacher might find helpful. Follow this with a brief discussion of the six different techniques that can be used for collecting data during a classroom observation.

2. Present an overview of the six models using prepared overhead transparencies (see Trainer's Notes).

3. Ask participants to form small groups of equal numbers (no more than eight per group). Assign a number to each group, according to the number of learning centers used.

4. Have participants move to the learning center table that represents their group number. Then have each small group select a group leader who will read the directions for the center and distribute a copy of the description of the particular data collection technique, seating chart, or other necessary materials. Have participants read the description of the technique and begin the task.

5. You will monitor each group and answer any questions. Most of the groups should complete the task in 15-20 minutes. When the groups have finished, ask them to move clockwise or counterclockwise to the next center. Continue these steps until each group has engaged with each learning center.

6. Debrief this session with a whole-group discussion of the various techniques and their value.

Time Required: 150-180 minutes for six centers, including a 10-minute break

LEARNING CENTER #1: VERBAL-FLOW TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a group leader who reviews the directions and distributes the verbal-flow description and blank seating chart.
2. Each group member reads the description of verbal-flow technique.
3. The group selects a timekeeper and VCR attendant.
4. The VCR attendant starts the tape. Group members watch for a few minutes to familiarize themselves with student names. The VCR attendant rewinds the videotape.
5. The VCR attendant begins the tape again. Each group member watches the tape a second time and collects data on verbal flow on the blank seating chart for five minutes. The VCR attendant rewinds the tape.
6. Group members compare and discuss data.
7. The group leader facilitates discussion around the following questions:
    A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?
    B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?
    C. When would you use this tool?

VERBAL FLOW

Verbal Flowchart

Since we become who we are partly through the image of ourselves that we see reflected in others, it is imperative that teachers be aware of the way they respond both verbally and physically to the students in their classrooms. A verbal flowchart is one way to determine how classroom procedures inhibit, encourage, or allow students to participate in classroom interactions.

Technique

This chart simply reflects the involvement of students in classroom discussion. The basic form for the chart, as in all SCORE (Seating Chart Observation Recording) instruments, is a representation of the students' seating pattern. Because of many forms that seating patterns take in classrooms, it is suggested that the observer create the seating chart on a blank pad. On the pad, one can record the students' sex or other characteristics such as racial differences, socioeconomic differences, ethnic or cultural differences -- any characteristics that might differentiate one group of students from another within a single classroom. Arrows are used as a basic symbol to indicate the categories of behavior. When students initiate a response, an arrow is drawn from the center of the box representing that student toward the teacher, as shown in the diagram.

If a student initiates several responses, several arrows can be drawn from that student's box. If the student makes a contribution as the result of a direction from the teacher or in response to a question specifically directed to him or her, an arrow is drawn toward the student, ending in the box representing him or her. If a teacher asks several questions of the same student, several arrows are drawn to that student's box. If a student asks a question, an arrow representing a student-initiated response is drawn toward the teacher but has a question mark on the end of it. If a teacher apparently regards a comment by a student as irrelevant or inaccurate, a zero can be placed at the end of the arrow (regardless of the way it is pointing) to represent that evaluation by the teacher. Social comments made between students not for the benefit of the entire class and not within the context of the ongoing discussion are indicated by a curved tie between the two students. Repetition of those social ties can be indicated by a crossbar for each repetition, or by recording the times during which they took place. To conserve space, more than one head can be put on an arrow, using additional symbols such as question marks and marks for + and - to indicate positive or negative responses. The variety of symbols is limited only by the imagination of the observer.

Source: Adapted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, from *Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation, Trainer's Manual*, by Keith A. Acheson and Marcia D'Arcangelo. (c) 1987: 99-103.

Additional subscripts and other marks can be used to reflect other categories of response made by individual students. Symbols and categories may be created in response to an expressed need by the teacher for such additional information. For instance, the observer might keep track of when various students responded. This is done by recording either a time or a sequential number next to the arrow. Such data might show that the teacher relies on different students in an obvious pattern, or at different times during the lesson.

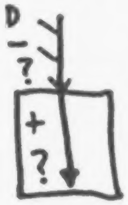
Verbal Flowchart Sample Legend

M	Male
F	Female
↗	Student volunteered a relevant or correct response.
↗°	Student volunteered an irrelevant or incorrect response.
↗?	Student volunteered a question about content.
↘	Student volunteered to answer a teacher question appropriately.
↘o	Student volunteered to answer a teacher question inappropriately.
↶↷	Students connected by line talked to each other without the teacher's permission.
↶	One student talked to his neighbor without permission.
////↷	One student talked to his neighbor four times without permission.

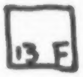
Some alternative ways for recording verbal flow are shown here in Exhibit 10.

☒	Teacher asks student a question and receives no response.
▨+	Teacher asks student a question, gets answer, and responds positively.

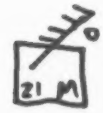
Space becomes a problem if there are frequent exchanges, so space savers can be created:



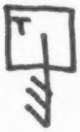
Teacher makes negative remark to student
Teacher asks question, gets response
Teacher makes positive remark to student
Teacher asks question and gets response



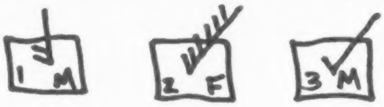
Sometimes blank spaces in the seating chart reveal important information: Student 13, a female, has not been called on, spoken to, or heard from. If every blank space is similar (all F, all M, all minority racial members, all lower socioeconomic class), then the teacher can discover a pattern which may require attention in future sessions.



Student 21, a male, initiates remarks four times and is responded to once, negatively.



Teacher directed a response from 1M twice, 2F six times, 3M once, and asked three "choral response" questions.



Caution

A precaution about the data obtained with this technique is in order. A single observation of verbal flow in a classroom discussion is insufficient to use as a basis for drastic changes in behavior. There is no reason to be concerned about how a teacher deals with the front of the room as compared to the back of the room if on succeeding days the pattern is reversed.

Similarly, there is no reason to be concerned about the differences between the treatment of males and females if the pattern is reversed on other days or if, in fact, there is no pattern at all, and we happen to catch one of a continuing series of random treatments.

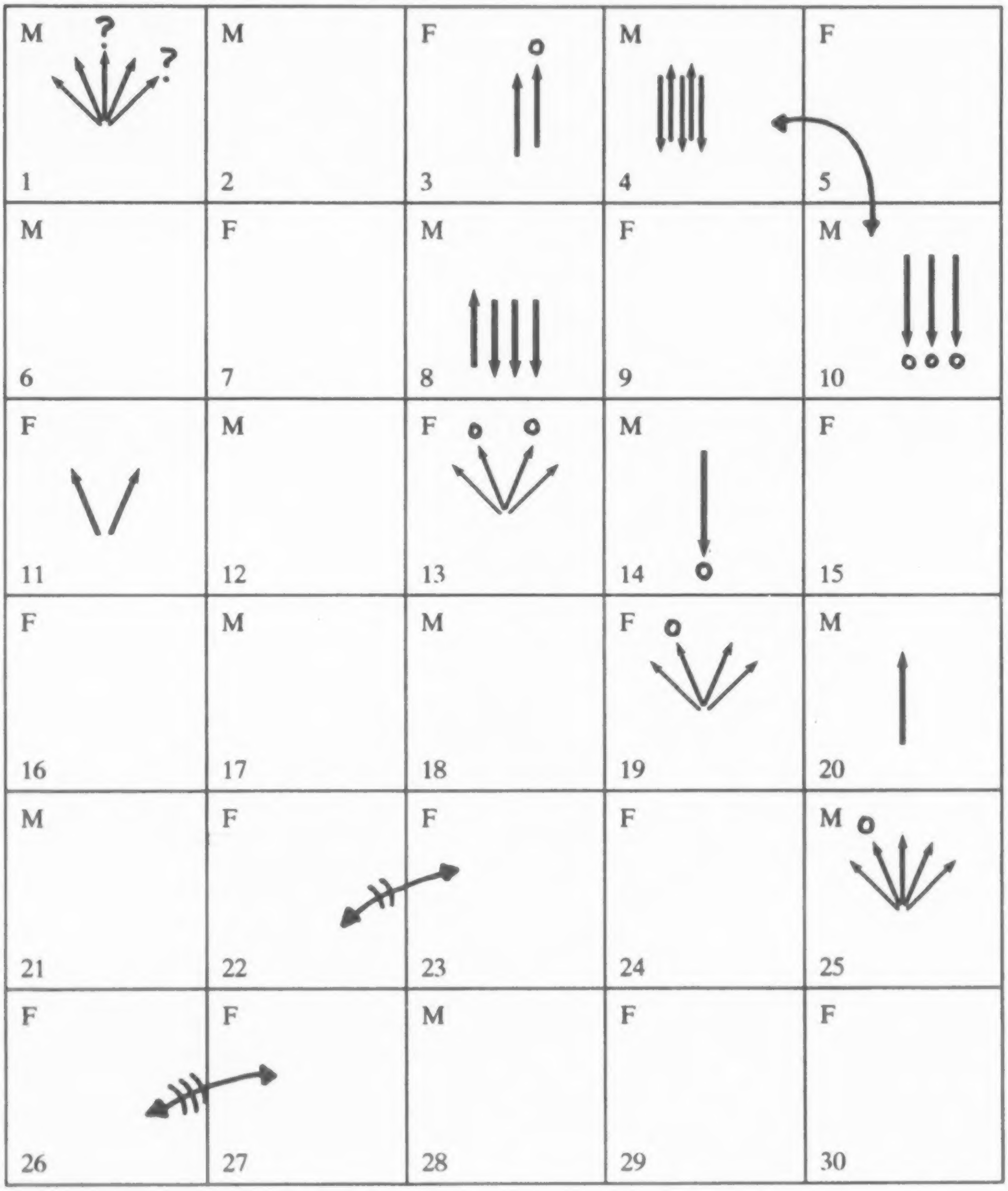
VERBAL–FLOW BLANK SEATING CHART

Michele	Kellie C.	Elizabeth	Sara D.	Jesse H.	Dee A.
Joshua	Blaise	Angelica	Mike	Jason M.	Gabe
Melody	Stewart	Autumn	Holly	Sheila	Forest
Travis	Melanie	Ian	Blake	Erica	Daniel
Aaron	Paris	Andy	Jamie	Tim	Brian W.

567

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 35.

EXHIBIT 10: VERBAL FLOWCHART


M 1
M 2
F 3
M 4
F 5
M 6
F 7
M 8
F 9
M 10
F 11
M 12
F 13
M 14
F 15
F 16
M 17
M 18
F 19
M 20
M 21
F 22
F 23
F 24
M 25
F 26
F 27
M 28
F 29
F 30

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 102.

LEARNING CENTER #2: AT-TASK TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a group leader who reviews directions and distributes the at-task description and blank seating chart.
2. Each group member reads the description of the at-task technique.
3. The group selects a timekeeper and VCR attendant.
4. The VCR attendant begins the tape. Group members watch for a few minutes to familiarize themselves with student names. The arrows on the seating chart show the direction of the camera. The VCR attendant rewinds the tape.
5. The VCR attendant begins the tape again. Each group member watches the tape a second time and records data on at task on the blank seating chart for five minutes.
6. The VCR attendant rewinds the tape.
7. Group members share and discuss data.
8. The group leader facilitates discussion on the following questions:

    A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?

    B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?

    C. When would you utilize this tool?

AT TASK

At-task behavior (academic engaged time) is a variable that correlates strongly with student achievement. The intent of at-task observations is to provide data for the teacher which indicate whether individual students are engaged in the task or tasks that the teacher deems appropriate. Before using this technique, the observer must understand the teacher's expectations of the students during a given classroom period. In those classrooms in which one task is expected of all students, there is no problem, but in the many classrooms in which students are able to do a variety of tasks, some preparation is necessary before the observer can apply this technique. As with the other SCORE instruments, the at-task technique requires the use of a seating chart.

Technique

After becoming thoroughly familiar with what the teacher expects the students to be doing (what is regarded as "at task"), the observer begins the process of data collection, as described below.

1. The observer sits somewhere in the room that allows him or her to observe all of the students, including facial expressions, not backs of heads.

2. The observer then constructs a chart which resembles the seating pattern of the students in the room that day.

3. He or she indicates on the chart the sex and some identifying characteristics of each student. (The latter is not necessary when the students' names are known. However, it is particularly important when names are not known and students will be moving about the room during the lesson.)

4. The observer creates a legend using code letters for behaviors to be observed. A typical legend might be:

A	At Task (you could use ✓)	D	Distracted/Out of seat (or O)
B	Stalling (or S)	E	Talking to neighbors (or T)
C	Other productive work (or P)	F	Nonproductive work (or N)

Note: Category C would mean that the student is doing "school work" but not work that is within the limits of what the teacher defined as expected behavior.

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 104-109.

5. The observer numbers 1-20 in each student's box on the seating chart to indicate visual sweeps of the class.

KATIE

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.
16.
17.
18.
19.
20.

The observer numbers 1-20 under the heading "Time" to keep track of the time at which each pass or visual sweep begins. For example:

TIME

1. 9:00
2. 9:02
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.
16.
17.
18.
19.
20.

This chart indicates that the observer started watching the class at 9:00. At 9:02, the observer finished watching each of the students for three to five seconds and began again with the first student.

The next sample box shows that at 9:00 the first student, Katie, was distracted (D), but at 9:02 she was at task (A).

KATIE	1. D	8.	15.
	2. A	9.	16.
	3.	10.	17.
	4.	11.	18.
	5.	12.	19.
	6.	13.	20.
	7.	14.	

6. The observer repeats the steps above at three- to five-second intervals for the duration of the lesson, using the same letter legend to indicate observed behavior, but changing the number to indicate the sequence of observations. As an aid in the analysis of the data, he or she should indicate the times that the observations were made somewhere on the chart. As new behaviors are observed, they are added to the legend.

Caution

Pay attention to three precautions. First, remember that the observer is only making judgment about behavior -- not "a look on his face," "an expression," or "a stance." Students are "at task" within this system unless they are overtly exhibiting behavior which represents a lack of task orientation.

Second, regardless of the behavior being exhibited, is it within the limits described by the teacher whether before or during the lesson? That is, a student could be out of his seat, talking to his neighbor, but if he is completing the task and doing so within the limits set by the teacher, the observer will record an *A* in the box representing the student. What is important is not that he is talking to his neighbor, or that he is out of his seat, but the fact that he is oriented to the task in a manner that the teacher considers acceptable.

Third, an observer must be careful to use general categories of "at-task" or "not-at-task" behaviors so as not to dilute the power of the instrument. That is, an observer would seldom have more than ten categories in any one observation.

Data Analysis

A completed "at-task" observation form might look like the one shown in Exhibit 11a. You'll notice in the upper left-hand corner an indication of the time that the observer made his 11 observations of each student. You'll notice that it generally took three or four minutes to make one complete sweep of the class. This is a typical time span for a class seated at desks. The upper right-hand corner indicates the categories that this observer used in defining the behavior of individual students. Each box represents 11 observations of a single student during the course of the lesson.

Note student 2. Notice also student 18. Student 18 is one who causes few problem -- he's seldom out of his seat, he's seldom talking to his neighbor, he's seldom wasting time, and he's seldom doing what the teacher expects him to do. Many teachers are quite surprised when they see recorded on paper the fact that their students were talking to friends two rows back. Notice how many students were at task for the first six or seven observations and then found something else to do. One may conclude from these data that the teacher had allotted too much time for the task at hand.

It is assumed that either the teacher or the observer will take the "at-task" data as recorded on the form and summarize it. The blank summary form will look like the form shown as Exhibit 11b. The categories are listed down the side of the page, and the time of each observation is recorded across the top. The individual who prepares the summary form simply counts the number of students who were exhibiting a specific behavior at a specific time and records that number in the appropriate spot. For instance, in this class, during the first observation, 17 students were at task, 5 students were stalling, and 2 students were doing other work. Similarly, this procedure is repeated for each observation made.

At the bottom of the page, the data are further summarized, categories are listed in a column, and three bits of information are recorded. The greatest number of students who exhibited that category at any one time are recorded under the "high" column. The least number of students who exhibited the category during an observation are recorded under the "low" column. The usual number of students who were exhibiting that behavior are recorded in the "mode" column. The third figure is obtained by finding the number that appears most often opposite a specific task.

While the analysis of individual student behavior is probably the most productive outcome of "at task," summary tables very quickly illustrate those situations in which the attention span of students, as individuals and as a group, was less than the time allotted by the teacher. Not only is this technique valuable in providing data about individual students, but it is valuable in gauging the response of students to a math lesson as compared to a history lesson, their attention span in the morning as compared to the late afternoon, on Monday morning as compared to Friday morning, to music as compared to art, to a student teacher as compared to a regular teacher.

EXHIBIT 11a: AT-TASK CHART

TIME:
10:40 -- 1
10:44 -- 2
10:48 -- 3
10:51 -- 4
10:54 -- 5
10:58 -- 6
11:02 -- 7
11:06 -- 8
11:10 -- 9
11:14 -- 10
11:20 -- 11

CODE:
A -- At task
B -- Stalling
C -- Other work-productive
D -- Distracted/out of seat
E -- Talking to neighbors
F -- Other work-nonproductive

1	2	3	4	5	6
1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-D 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-D 11-D	1-E 6-A 2-E 7-E 3-B 8-E 4-B 9-E 5-E 10-E 11-E	1-E 6-A 2-A 7-E 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-D	1-E 6-B 2-A 7-D 3-D 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-E 11-E	1-B 6-D 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-E 11-D	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-D 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A
7	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-E 5-A 10-D 11-E	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-B 6-A 2-B 7-A 3-B 8-A 4-D 9-D 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-B 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-D 3-A 8-D 4-D 9-A 5-A 10-E 11-F	1-B 6-A 2-A 7-D 3-A 8-C 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A
13	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**
1-B 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-D 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-D 5-E 10-E 11-A	1-B 6-A 2-D 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-D 5-A 10-A 11-D	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-D 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-E 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-F	1-C 6-D 2-C 7-D 3-C 8-E 4-C 9-C 5-E 10-B 11-A
19	**20**	**21**	**22**	**23**	**24**
1-A 6-A 2-A 7-E 3-A 8-E 4-A 9-A 5-C 10-E 11-E	1-A 6-A 2-B 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-E 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-E 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-D 3-A 8-D 4-E 9-A 5-D 10-D 11-F	1-D 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-A
25	**26**	**27**	**28**	**29**	**30**
	1-C 6-D 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-A 9-E 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-D 8-E 4-A 9-D 5-A 10-A 11-A	1-A 6-A 2-A 7-A 3-A 8-E 4-A 9-F 5-A 10-F 11-F		1-A 6-A 2-D 7-A 3-A 8-A 4-E 9-A 5-A 10-A 11-E

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 108.

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EXHIBIT 11b: AT–TASK SUMMARY

	10:40	10:44	10:48	10:51	10:54	10:58	11:02	11:06	11:10	11:14	11:20	
At Task	17	21	21	21	23	23	21	18	19	16	14	214 (67%)
Stalling	5	2	2	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	10 (2.8%)
Other Work (productive)	2	1	1	1	1	–	–	1	1	–	–	8 (2.2%)
Distracted/ Out of Seat	1	3	3	2	1	5	5	3	4	4	6	37 (12%)
Talking	3	1	1	3	3	–	2	6	3	7	5	34 (11.5%)
Other Work (nonproductive)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	3	5 (1.5%)

HIGH	LOW	MODE
A - 23	14	21
B-F - 14	5	7
B - 5	0	0
C - 2	0	1
D - 6	1	3
E - 7	0	3
F - 3	0	0

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 109.

Most professional educators are very quick to reject generalizations about average attention span, average student characteristics, and average student intelligence quotients, but many teachers continue to use these averages in determining appropriate lengths of discussions and lessons. A teacher or observer using "at task" for specific students, for specific classes, and for specific teachers can determine the actual attention span of a group of students on a given day in a given activity.

To review, an observer uses "at task" as a technique for gathering data when the teacher is concerned about individual behavior, about student attentiveness, about task orientation, and other related items. The observer, using a blank piece of paper, sits generally in the front of the room, but always in a situation in which eye contact can be made with most of the students in the class. After sketching a seating plan on the observation pad (see At-Task Blank Seating Chart on page 3-117), the observer proceeds to make a judgment about each student regarding whether or not the student is oriented to the task at hand. If the student is task-oriented, the observer records the letter *A*; if he or she is not task-oriented, the observer records the letter which represents the behavior the student is exhibiting (see At-Task Completed Seating Chart on page 3-119).

Categories used will differ from observation to observation. The observer will systematically start with the same student on every round of the class. Follow the same sequence in observing the students in order to preserve the time-sampling nature of the technique. The observer will make as many observations of individual students as the time given for the lesson or the observation will permit. The information gathered can be presented directly to the teacher as it is recorded on the form, or it can be summarized as suggested (see At-Task Summary Sheet on page 3-118). This technique can be used not only in traditional classroom settings in which students are seated in rows and desks, but can be used in informal classroom settings in which students are seated on the floor, working on art projects, in a science lab, or watching a filmstrip. It has been used by orchestra directors, study hall monitors, physical education instructors, and teachers of home economics and industrial arts.

The ability to use "at task" as an effective observation tool is contingent upon the observer being able to recognize and observe specific students and to categorize their behaviors in relation to the teacher's expectation for the given lesson.

AT–TASK BLANK SEATING CHART

TIMES	CODES
1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	A - At Task (Overt) P - At Task (Passive) B - Off Task (Overt) D - Off Task (Distracted/Out of Seat) T - Off Task (Talking) H - Requesting/Receiving Teacher Help

MAX	**STEPHANIE**	**TRAVIS**
1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 ← 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 ← 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14
		↑
LAURA	**PAUL**	**SHIRLEY**
1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 → 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 → 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14
↑		
SHAWN	**GABE**	**ANGELINA**
1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 ← 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14	1 8 15 2 9 16 3 10 17 ← 4 11 18 5 12 19 6 13 20 7 14

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 35.

AT–TASK SUMMARY SHEET

CODE	At Task (Overt)	At Task (Passive)	Off Task (Overt)	Off Task (Distracted)	Off Task (Talking)	Requesting/ Receiving Teacher Help
11:01	2	6	0	0	0	1
11:03	1	8	0	0	0	0
11:07	6	1	0	0	0	2
11:10	6	2	0	1	0	0
11:12	9	0	0	0	0	0
11:14	5	1	0	1	0	2
11:17	6	0	0	1	0	2
11:20	8	0	0	0	0	1
11:23	7	2	0	0	0	0
11:25	7	0	0	1	0	1
11:28	3	2	0	3	0	1
11:31	4	3	0	0	0	2

AT-TASK COMPLETED SEATING CHART

TIMES

1	11:01	8	11:20	15
2	11:03	9	11:23	16
3	11:07	10	11:25	17
4	11:10	11	11:28	18
5	11:12	12	11:31	19
6	11:14	13		20
7	11:17	14		

CODES

A - At Task (Overt)
P - At Task (Passive)
B - Off Task (Overt)
D - Off Task (Distracted/Out of Seat)
T - Off Task (Talking)
H - Requesting/Receiving Teacher Help

MAX	**STEPHANIE**	**TRAVIS**
1P 8A 15 2P 9A 16 3H 10A 17 4P 11P 18 5A 12H 19 6P 13 20 7A 14	1P 8A 15 2P 9A 16 3A 10A 17 ← 4A 11A 18 5A 12A 19 6H 13 20 7H 14	1P 8H 15 2P 9A 16 3H 10A 17 ← 4A 11P 18 5A 12A 19 6A 13 20 7D 14
		↑
LAURA	**PAUL**	**SHIRLEY**
1P 8A 15 2P 9P 16 3A 10A 17 4A 11H 18 → 5A 12H 19 6A 13 20 7H 14	1P 8A 15 2P 9A 16 3A 10A 17 4D 11D 18 → 5A 12A 19 6D 13 20 7A 14	1H 8A 15 2P 9A 16 3A 10A 17 4A 11A 18 5A 12A 19 6A 13 20 7A 14
↑		
SHAWN	**GABE**	**ANGELINA**
1A 8A 15 2P 9P 16 3P 10A 17 4A 11D 18 5A 12P 19 6H 13 20 7A 14	1P 8A 15 2P 9A 16 3A 10D 17 ← 4P 11A 18 5A 12P 19 6A 13 20 7A 14	1A 8A 15 2A 9A 16 3A 10H 17 ← 4A 11D 18 5A 12P 19 6A 13 20 7A 14

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 35.

LEARNING CENTER #3: CLASS–TRAFFIC TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a group leader who reviews the directions and distributes the class-traffic description and blank paper.
2. Each group member reads the description of the class-traffic technique.
3. Using blank paper, each member creates a seating chart of the room.
4. The group selects a timekeeper.
5. Each group member observes the trainer and records the trainer's class-traffic patterns for five minutes.
6. Group members compare and discuss data.
7. The group leader facilitates discussion around the following questions:

    A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?

    B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?

    C. When would you utilize this tool?

CLASS TRAFFIC

A third observation technique which relies upon the use of a student's seating pattern (score instrument) is one which records the physical movements visible during a lesson -- such movements by teacher and student. There are as many ways to collect this data as there are observers and teachers.

Technique 1

An observer sits in an advantageous location in the room and draws a pencil sketch of the classroom on an observation pad. Using a legend as is suggested below or a variety of colored pencils, the observer records the movement of the teacher, at-task movement of the students, and inappropriate student traffic. In addition, it has proven valuable to record which students have conferences with the teacher. Prior to observing, of course, it is necessary to determine which movements the teacher will consider appropriate. Exhibit 12 is an example of this technique.

Physical Movement Legend

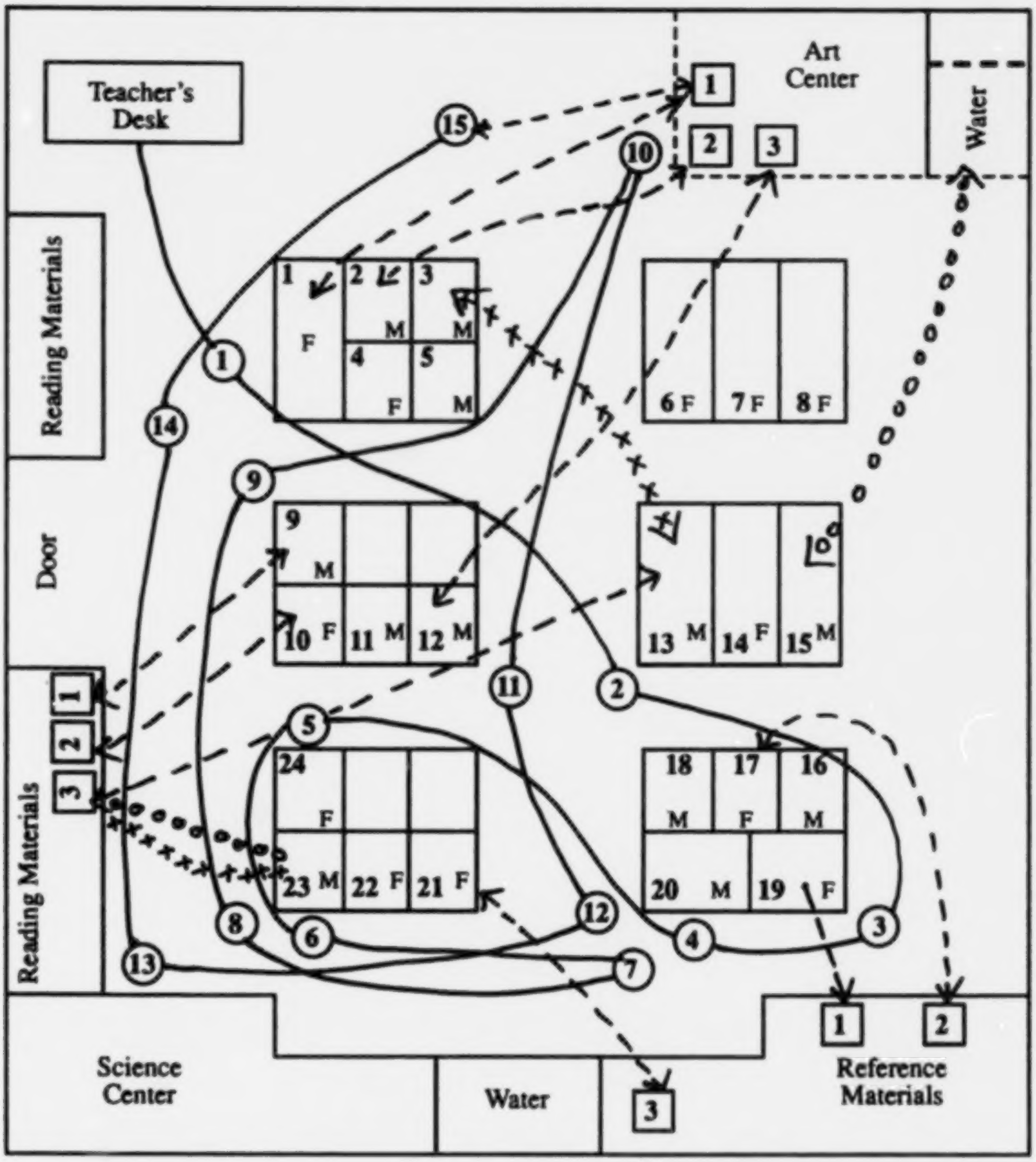
x x x x x x x x x x x	Directed student movement
- - - - - - - - - - - -	Purposeful student movement (nondirected)
———>———>	Teacher movement (arrow indicates direction)
o o o o o o o o o o o	Nonpurposeful student movement
①	Student-teacher conference (number indicates sequential order)

Technique 2

This technique, illustrated in Exhibit 13, is most often used during directed study activities in which students are seated individually, pursuing work with occasional help from the teacher. Rather than "cluttering up" a seating chart with lines and dashes, the observer merely records the teacher's movements by indicating the sequential nature of the conferences. The first conference a teacher has after work begins is indicated as 1 10:57, the second as 2 10:58, the third as 3 11:00. The indication is made within the box representing a specific student. An experienced observer will also record in anecdotal form the movement and overt behaviors of students.

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 110-115. 581

EXHIBIT 12: CLASS TRAFFIC


Teacher's Desk
Art Center
Water
Reading Materials
Door
Reading Materials
Science Center
Water
Reference Materials
1 F
2 M
3 M
4 F
5 M
6 F
7 F
8 F
9 M
10 F
11 M
12 M
13 M
14 F
15 M
16 M
17 F
18 M
19 F
20 M
21 F
22 F
23 M
24 F

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 112.

EXHIBIT 13: CLASS TRAFFIC

㉘ 6			11:15 Goes to T ⑧ ⑫ ㉓ 11:13 ㉖ 17		
10:57 Asks for help and raises his hand 11:08 Pounds on wall ⑯ 11:08 ㉝ 11:21 5		12	10:11 Raises hand ⑦ 11:00 ⑪ 11:03 Susan	⑨ 11:02 Keith	11:10 Raises hand ⑩ 11:02 ㉔ 11:13 25
4		11:16 Gets up, walks around, and sits down ④ 11	⑤ ⑥ 15	11:08 Raises hand Julie	
3				20	24
11:02 Raises Hand ⑭ ⑰ 11:10 2	10:58 Goes to #4 until 11:02 11:06 Goes to #4 11:10 Goes to books in back until 11:20 ⑱ 8	11:07 Gets a book from shelf in back ① 10:57 ㉖ 1:15 ⑲ ㉙ ㉜ Mike F.	11:02 Raises hand ⑬ 11:05 ㉒ ㉚ Donna	11:14 Goes to bookshelf ㉗ 19	
11:07 Gets up and stands to talk to #7 until 11:09 Linda	7	⑮ ㉛ Liz	11:08 Raises hand 11:20 Goes to T ② ⑳ 11:10 Mike	11:07 Raises hand ㉑ 11:11 18	11:15 Goes to bookshelf 11:18 Returns to books ③ 11:21 Goes again ㉕ Martha

T

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 113.

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Technique 3

This technique is useful when the teacher wants data on classroom traffic but expects a variety of "moves." Exhibit 14 illustrates this technique. In the sample shown, the teacher has four groups "digging through" a pile of newspapers, looking for data on the Watergate affair. At intervals, a group recorder reports these data to the teacher, who builds a "people and events" flowchart on the chalkboard. The observer draws a representation of the room on one pad and records the different locations of the teacher each time the teacher's behavior changes to either verbal or nonverbal. On another pad, the observer writes a brief narrative description of what the teacher says or does as well as the interaction patterns with each small group.

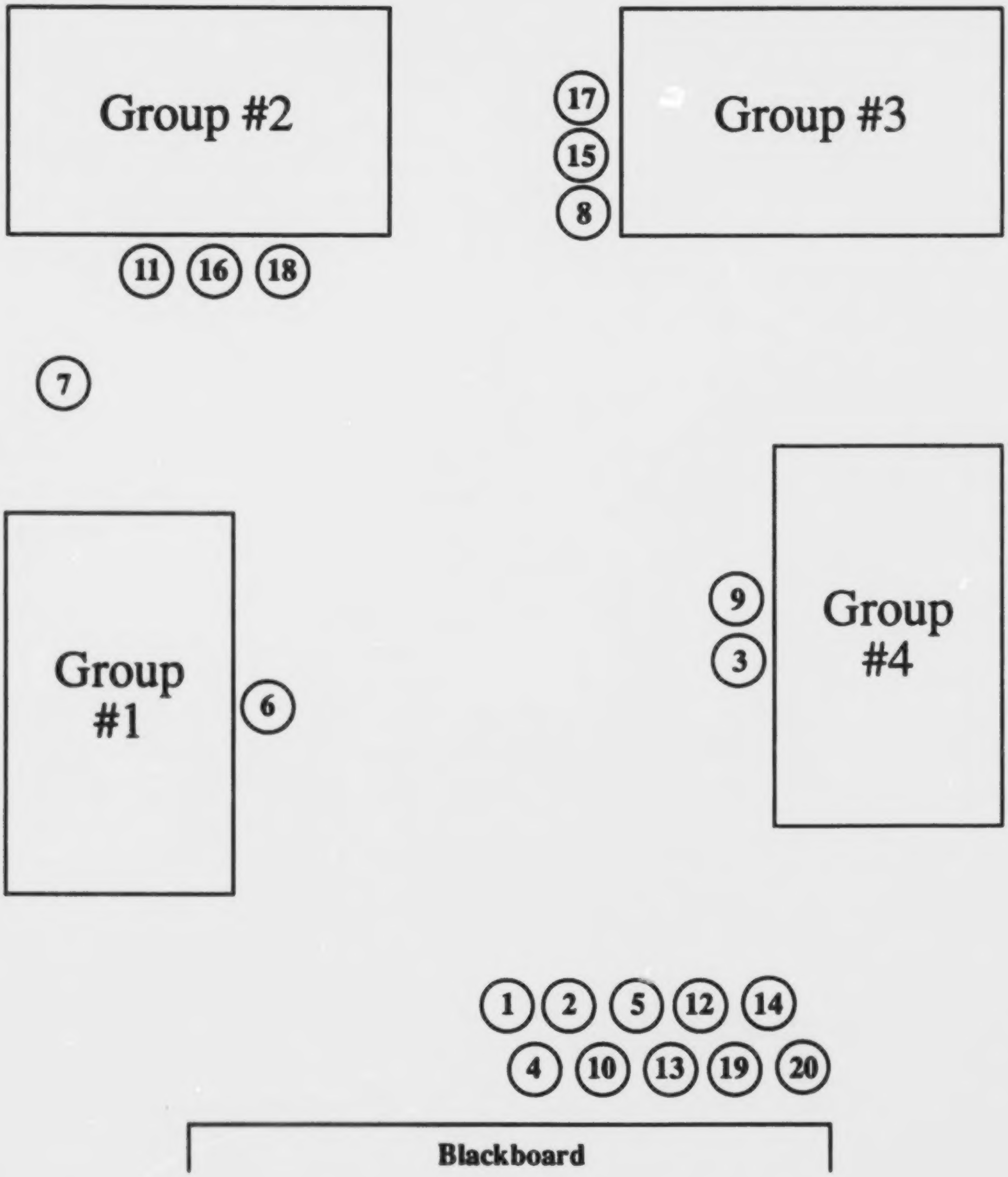
Data Analysis

Since there is no universally accepted standard of behavior for teacher movement in the classroom, it is easy to relate actual behavior with teacher expectations.

The teacher should analyze the data with a number of questions in mind:

1. Was an area of the classroom or a specific student systematically ignored as the teacher moved about the classroom?
2. Similarly, were the students who received most of the teacher's attention given undue recognition?
3. Was there a pattern to the movement of either teacher or students that might be beneficial (i.e., worthy of repetition) or detrimental (i.e., worthy of thwarting)?
4. How does teacher activity relate to what the teacher wanted to do or feels "should have been done"?
5. How could "results" have been improved through changes in physical behavior of either the teacher or the student?
6. As in all SCORE observations, were these data descriptive of today's behavior only or were they representative of the "usual" behavior of this teacher?

EXHIBIT 14: CLASS TRAFFIC


Group #2
11
16
18
17
15
8
Group #3
7
Group #1
6
9
3
Group #4
1
2
5
12
14
4
10
13
19
20
Blackboard

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 114.

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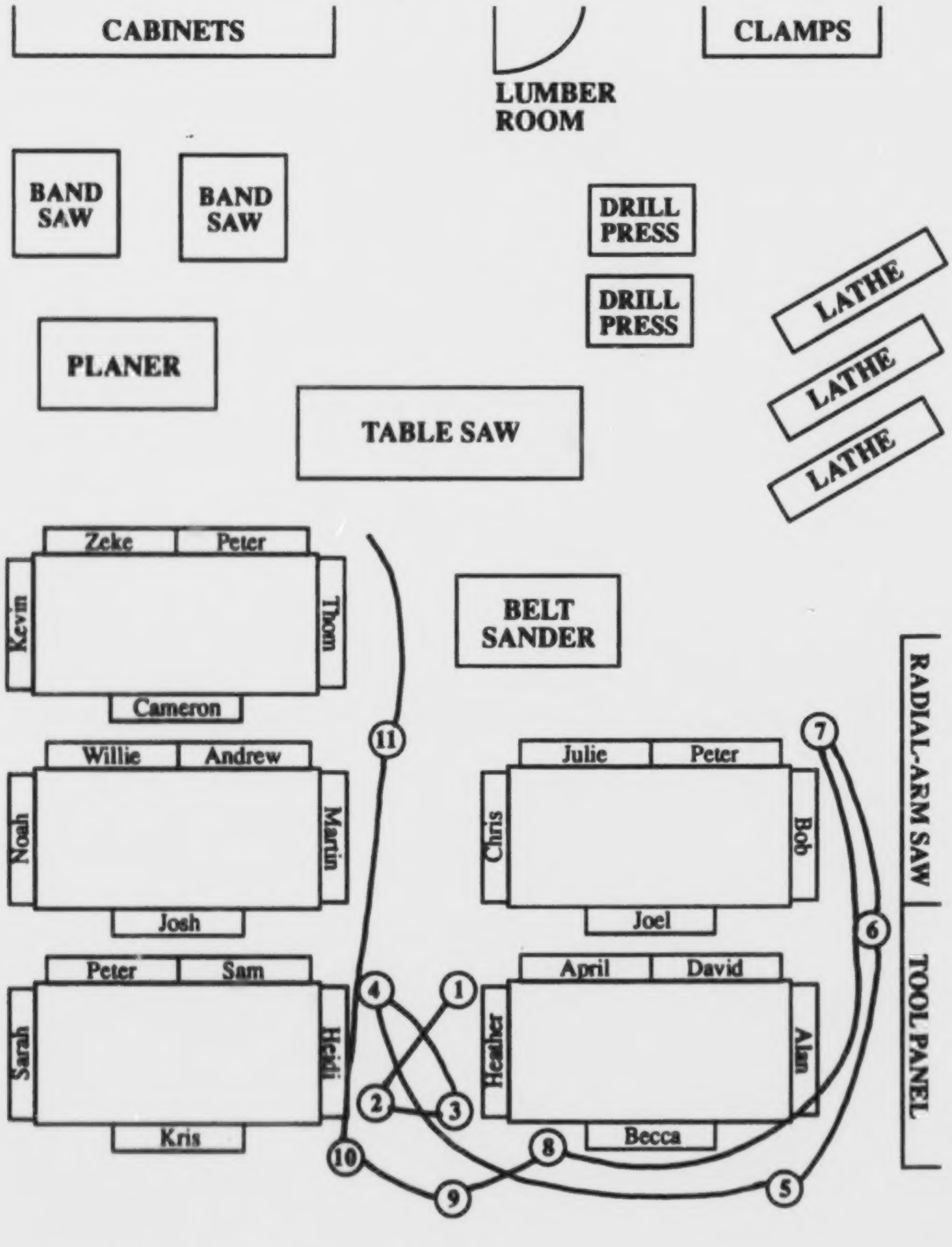
CLASS-TRAFFIC COMPLETED SEATING CHART


CABINETS
LUMBER ROOM
CLAMPS
BAND SAW
BAND SAW
DRILL PRESS
DRILL PRESS
LATHE
LATHE
LATHE
PLANER
TABLE SAW
BELT SANDER
RADIAL-ARM SAW
TOOL PANEL
Zeke
Peter
Kevin
Thom
Cameron
Willie
Andrew
Noah
Martin
Josh
Peter
Sam
Sarah
Heidi
Kris
Julie
Peter
Chris
Bob
Joel
April
David
Heather
Alan
Becca
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 35.

LEARNING CENTER #4: GLOBAL-SCAN TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a group leader who explains the global-scan technique and distributes a description and blank paper.

2. Each group member reads the description of the global-scan technique.

3. The group selects a timekeeper.

4. Group members visually scan the room and note actions that occur in the various learning centers for five minutes. Each group member may narrow down the scan by focusing on a particular area (participant involvement or trainer's role), or they may try to take a snapshot of the room as a whole and note what is happening. Please make note of specific behaviors or actions and avoid inferences and judgments.

5. Group members compare and discuss data.

6. The group leader facilitates discussion around the following questions:

   A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?

   B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?

   C. When would you utilize this tool?

GLOBAL SCAN

Anecdotal Records

One way to record classroom interaction using a global scan is with anecdotal records. These are a series of brief notes on what the observer sees happening over time. They are similar to field notes an anthropologist may make when studying a different culture. Both anthropologists and classroom observers need to be as objective as possible in what they choose to note.

The observer should avoid recording inferences or judgments. For example, "teacher is nervous and upset" is an inference; "teacher frowns and moves quickly to desk" is more objective. When the teacher has expressed particular concerns in a pre-observation conference, the observer watches for behavior that matches the concerns. If the teacher has not specified any particular categories to concentrate on, the observer will look for general patterns based on an understanding of teaching strategies, teaching techniques, and learner characteristics.

Video and Audio Recordings

Among the most objective global observation techniques are video and audio recordings. They permit teachers to see or hear themselves as students might. They pick up much of what teachers and students do and say. A good recording can catch the essence of classroom interaction.

The global nature of video or audio recording can be a strength or a weakness. Sensitive teachers will see or hear many different facets of teacher or student behavior. There is a tendency for the teacher viewing or hearing a tape to focus on relatively superficial or "cosmetic" aspects of teaching when they are not accustomed to seeing or hearing themselves teaching.

Keep in mind that whoever operates the video camera or places the microphone has the potential to "editorialize." Teachers and students can be made to look or sound better or worse by camera or microphone placement, close-ups, and other technical devices.

A 20-minute recording is usually enough to obtain an adequate sample of the class.

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 123.

LEARNING CENTER #5: SELECTIVE–VERBATIM TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a leader who reviews the directions and distributes the selective-verbatim description, blank paper, and materials.

2. Each group member reads the description of the selective-verbatim technique.

3. Two group members volunteer to read the dialogue from the Selective-Verbatim Class Transcript (see page 3-143). One will read the role of the teacher, and the other will read the role of the students.

4. While the readers read the dialogue aloud, the remaining group members write down the questions the students ask in the dialogue. Remember, this is an exercise in practicing selective verbatim. Group members who are observing should concern themselves with recording the questions that are asked in the dialogue. Any other information is not relevant to this task.

5. Group members compare and discuss data.

6. The group leader facilitates discussion around the following questions:

    A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?

    B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?

    C. When would you utilize this tool?

SELECTIVE VERBATIM

With selective-verbatim techniques, an observer records what is said within a specific category of concern selected by a teacher. For example, if the teacher is concerned about questioning techniques, the observer will record questions asked -- including surplus words and verbal tics. If the teacher is concerned about classroom control, the observer will record statements the teacher makes in an effort to control student behavior. The observer simply acts as a sorter, recording statements which fit the categories identified by the teacher. (Teachers can choose to analyze themselves by using an audiotape recorder as the observer.)

Selective-Verbatim Patterns

The following categories commonly occur in classroom interaction and can be easily identified from a verbatim transcript. This list is far from exhaustive but represents a cross-section of verbal behaviors commonly found in classrooms.

Teacher Talk. Elements in this category include:

- teacher questions;
- teacher responses to student questions or statements;
- teacher directions and assignments;
- general teacher talk patterns (verbal mannerisms such as "OK" or "all right," repeated use of phrases or words, self-reference);
- teacher rewards and praise statements;
- teacher criticism of pupil behavior; and
- teacher control of pupil behavior.

Student Talk. Elements in this category include:

- student responses to teacher questions;
- student questions;
- student-initiated statements; and
- general student talk patterns.

Source: Acheson and D'Arcangelo, Op. Cit., 3-104: 87-95.

Teacher Questions

Research indicates that teachers ask at least one question every minute in the "average" teacher-led discussion. It is not unusual for a teacher to ask 30-40 questions, 6 of which were planned, during the course of a 30-minute discussion. What do the unplanned questions look like? Many teachers have never listened to and systematically analyzed their questions. This technique enables the observer to record all interrogative statements a teacher makes. The data provide the teacher with the opportunity to compare what was wanted with what was asked for.

Interrogative statements are phrases which sound like a question but for which no answer is expected. One research study showed over 50 percent of teacher questions are not meant to be answered. Actually they are praise, criticism, directions, or lecture.

Technique

To conduct selective verbatim, the observer sits anywhere in the classroom and records the questions and interrogative statements that a teacher makes. After a short period of practice, it will be possible for the observer to record all questions in most discussions. Occasionally, the observer will face the "rapid-fire" questioner who asks ten questions in two minutes. In this case, the observer might decide to tape-record the questions for audio analysis or arbitrarily decide to record every other, or every third, question. With more experience, the observer will also be able to record verbal flow, interaction patterns, or other closely related data.

Data Analysis

Lists of teacher questions have shown teachers who ask all their questions the same way, starting with the same phrase; teachers who only ask questions which demand one-word answers; or teachers who ask multiple questions every time. Multiple questions are those in which the teacher asks three or four questions without giving the student an opportunity to respond. In these cases, the first question often relates to the discussion at hand, while the last is the question that is answered. Often there is little relationship between the first and the last question in such a series. The teacher probably wonders why the students always get off the subject. Areas the observer might consider when analyzing teacher questions include:

1. How many questions actually requested a student response?

2. What pattern of questioning was revealed, i.e., repetitious phrases, one-word answers, multiple questions, wordy questions?

3. What thought levels were demanded in the response? (The observer could use the ideas of Sanders, Hunkins, Bloom, Taba, or any of the other recent writers on questioning.)

4. What if the teacher could not use:

   a. the word *what*
   b. questions that start with a verb
   c. "Do you think . . ."

5. What is the relationship between the teacher's intentions and the questions asked?

6. What is the relationship between the lesson content objectives and the questions asked?

7. What is the relationship between the vocabulary used and the students' verbal ability?

8. Is there a relationship between the questions asked and student participation patterns?

Sample Data

Exhibits 1 and 2 are lists of questions recorded by trained observers. They are included to show what the data will look like and to provide opportunities to practice analyzing data. Exhibit 1 comes from an elementary classroom doing a unit on urban development. Exhibit 2 is a high school social studies discussion of penal reform and penal problems.

Data Analysis

No ideal pattern of response exists. Each lesson, each teacher, and each group of students will demand different patterns. Each collection of data will have to be analyzed in terms of the desired behaviors of the teachers, the needs of the students, and the nature of the activity. The role of the observer is to see that the data are analyzed, hypotheses are formed, and future actions are planned and modified as appropriate.

The teacher or observer can raise several questions:

1. Does a patterned response exist? Does every response start with the same word or phrase? Is the response meaningful or habitual?

2. Where several responses are repeated, is there any consistent reason for them? Does the correct answer get one response while an incorrect one gets another? Do "relevant" comments or questions get one response while "irrelevant" ones get another? Do boys get a different response then girls? "Good" students versus "bad" students?

EXHIBIT 1: TEACHER QUESTIONS

1. What would be some of the reasons why cities develop?
2. But would that cause them to settle there? (unanswered)
3. What about things like weather conditions?
4. What about -- what modes of transportation did they have at this time? (S -- When are we talking about?)
5. What would be some of the major cities that developed for some of these reasons? What is a city that developed around water?
6. What other city developed around water?
7. What are possibly some cities that might have developed as trade centers? Think of people moving out West.
8. OK, what happened when people . . . What would be the importance of cities like Winnipeg?
9. What cities might have developed due to railroads?
10. What would be some of the reasons why the Vancouver area might have developed?
11. What would possibly be some reasons why cities would die?
12. What kind of city would die of crime?
13. In connection with the economy, what would affect the death of a city?
14. What about large towns? What is it about them that makes them grow?
15. Does anyone else have any other reasons for the development of cities?
16. Where did the people concentrate?
17. Where was the land where they lived? Why would the city develop there?
18. What about when they look for enemies?
19. During what period did Vancouver have its greatest growth?
20. What could have happened that would have increased it?
21. What about people from Europe?
22. What kept it from developing from the center? How did they spread out? In what way did they develop?
23. How did the development of these cities parallel the development of Vancouver?
24. Look at Victoria. Why would a city develop at this point on the island rather than there (pointing at the board)?

EXHIBIT 2: TEACHER QUESTIONS

10:05 1. Do you want to close the door?
2. What were we talking about yesterday?
3. Give me something that could help to stop the vicious circle?
4. What else?
5. What do we consider to be the main problems?
6. What is one of the problems that stems from this?
7. Why?
8. What's the word?
9. What does *that* mean?
10. From the word *convict*, what comes out?
11. What else?
12. What are they classified as?
10:17 13. What does *ostracized* mean? (no answer)
14. They immediately lose what?
15. What else?
16. What's a deviant?
17. They become hard-core criminals more or less because why?
18. Who do they associate with?
19. What do they receive from this? (S -- I don't understand what you want.)
20. What do they get from these people?
21. What do they get from these people?
22. They get acceptance from whom?
23. Any questions on this? Is it understandable?
24. What other restrictions do they place on them?
25. What shows they aren't considered acceptable?
26. What else?
27. The custodial prison does what?

EXHIBIT 2: TEACHER QUESTIONS (continued)

28. What is the idea behind prison?
29. Wouldn't you agree? (no answer)
30. Who should be giving the criminal leadership?
31. What's going to happen as soon as he gets back?
32. Would that be a good assumption? (no answer)

10:29 33. Would you agree? (S -- Yeah)

34. Do you know anything? What do you think?
35. What kind of programs should these be?
36. Where is Marianna? (no answer)
37. Does anyone know where Oakalla is?
38. What was that?
39. They wouldn't take a guy right after he committed a crime and put him on a job, would they?
40. Do you remember what we talked about yesterday?
41. What happens when he's been ostracized from society; when he goes over to the hard-core group; when he's been pushed so far to one side; when a program comes up?
42. Why?
43. So what would be considered if he broke away from his peers, which he'd be unlikely to do, when he takes advantage of such a program?
44. So what happens when the relationship breaks down when he still has two years to go?
45. How can you do this?
46. Is that your only solution?

10:35 47. Do you want to bet on that?

3. Are most responses questions? Statements? Encouragements? Value judgments?

4. Since conclusions must be based upon several observations, does the teacher respond differently to different groups? Does one type of lesson result in different responses from another type? Does a particular student usually get a specific category of response?

5. How often are students' names mentioned?

6. When value judgments are made, are the criteria given?

7. When the response is a statement, is the teacher using the idea of a student or changing the subject?

8. Could the response have been made without students having said anything? (See Exhibit 4.)

9. Does every student comment result in a teacher comment? Can several students talk without the teacher commenting?

The responses to each of these questions must be followed with "So what?" and a decision whether to act upon the information or gather more data.

Sample Data

Exhibit 3 was made in a junior high school social studies class.

Teacher Responses

We are who we are, personally, largely due to the mirror image of ourselves that we see in others. One of the most available "mirrors" is the verbal reaction of others to what we say. Since teachers do more talking than any other behavior in the classroom, they are responding to student verbal behavior during much of the school day. The second selective-verbatim technique is the recording of the initial response of teachers to every student comment.

Technique

As with all selective-verbatim categories, the observer sits in the room in a location that facilitates hearing both the teacher and student comments. The observer records on a blank sheet of paper the first sentence or phrase (six to ten words) that the teacher says every time a student stops talking.

EXHIBIT 3: VERBATIM RESPONSE BY A TEACHER

1. Does anyone know who gave the orders . . .
2. Well, now, the big question seems to be . . .
3. All right, now, this is a good point Robert has mentioned . . .
4. All right, now, Karen has asked the question . . .
5. All right, now we've heard several different opinions on this . . .
6. Any other thoughts on this, Sandra?
7. All right, boys, that is enough back there now . . .
8. All right, now, just a minute, Jerry, stand up please . . .
9. All right, let's get your behavior back . . .
10. Well, now, Sandra's brought up a very good point . . .
11. All right, now, this is a good point . . .
12. Now, class, what do you think of that?
13. All right, now, this introduces something else too . . .
14. All right, now, we have heard several points of view on this . . .
15. All right, now, let's put this in a briefer question . . .
16. All right, who would be, I think we could just write down . . .
17. In other words, why was it done?
18. All right, what could happen?
19. All right, now, this is the one point of the discussion . . .
20. This will be due on Monday . . .
21. Now, of course, you're going to be somewhere where . . .
22. Well, now, this is one thing that we will perhaps . . .
23. You certainly could do this. Perhaps your parents . . .

EXHIBIT 4: CONTROL STATEMENTS

Day 1

3:03 Girls. Please turn around.
3:05 Girls!
3:12 Make sure that you write this down in your notebook.
3:17 OK, most of you have finished. We will go on.
3:20 Sssssh!
3:20 Sssssh!
3:21 Mac!
3:23 Well, you don't have to listen, do you? (No) Then don't listen.
3:23 OK, Ssssh! Class! Girls! (One of the girls asked, "Which girls?")
3:24 Girls!
3:25 CLASS!
3:27 OK, Sssssh! Turn to page 465.
3:29 OK! Would someone please read the introduction? Ssssh!
3:31 Class -- You girls back there in the corner.
3:40 SSSH!
3:41 Class! Girls! Leslie!
3:41 CLASS! LESLIE! SSSH!

Day 2

3:03 Class, let's have an orderly discussion today. When you want to talk, please raise your hand and I'll call on you.
3:23 Class! Class!
3:28 Let me see hands! Let me see hands!
3:28 Mac, if you have something to say, raise your hand and I'll call on you.
3:29 Class! Leslie, come sit up here.
3:30 Betty! Mr. Ross!
3:32 Mac!
3:32 Joan!
3:33 Class, please give this lady your attention. (A boy asks, "Which lady? She's no lady.")
3:34 Mr. Ross!
3:35 Isn't that right, Carol? Carol!
3:36 Leslie!
3:37 Come on, class. Let's get together. If you have something to say, raise your hand. I won't ask you again!
3:39 Mr. Ross, come up here, please.

For example, let us assume that a teacher asked, "Who has the answer to 1?" A student then responded with his answer, and the teacher said, "No, it is not that. John?" (indicating another student). John then gave his answer and the teacher repeated it, gave additional information, and asked for the answer to 2. (This example and the others in this manual are not intended to suggest ideal lessons.) The observer would have recorded as follows:

T: ????
S
T: No, it is not that. John?
John
T: (repeats answer) . . . ?
Martha
T: OK, Spain ruled Cuba and (repeats answer) . . . ?
Mary
T: That's right, like Mary said (repeats answer) . . . ?

An observer may choose to write out the repetition or merely indicate that repetition is occurring. (It is probably better to write out the repetition until the teacher accepts this behavior.) When a teacher talks beyond a single phrase, the observer indicates this with a series of dots. When the teacher's comments end with a question, the observer indicates this with a question mark.

The observer should use parentheses to name what is happening rather than record the actual behavior. When several students talk between teacher comments, the observer would show this in the following manner:

T: OK, that's right. What else?
S
S
S
S
T: Now let's summarize what we know about this . . . .

Thus, at the end of a discussion, the observer has compiled a record of the manner in which the teacher responded to students in a given lesson.

Control Statements

The primary means of many teachers to control the behavior of their students is through verbal statements. At times, however, the very statements which are meant to control the students have the opposite effect. Often the statements have no effect. Recording the statements a teacher makes in an effort to control or limit student behavior provides data which can become the starting point for behavioral changes.

Technique

The observer in the classroom or the teacher using a tape recorder simply records all statements made during a lesson which were intended to control or limit the behavior of students. These may be worded as questions, sarcasm, directions, commands, or reprimands. No other comments during the lesson are recorded systematically. It is often helpful to record the timing of the statement, any verbal "challenge" or response, and the activity occurring at the time of the statements.

Data Analysis

Each collection of data must be analyzed to determine alternative statements or behaviors which might have been more effective, i.e., giving them more work, ignoring behavior, naming offenders. In some cases, what isn't said may be more persuasive than what is said. Audio or video recordings may be necessary in those instances when the teacher doesn't perceive a problem. One of several seating chart or SCORE instruments may be necessary to help a teacher locate the troublemakers or the reason for the trouble. Exhibit 4 is indicative of two consecutive days of a student teacher's attempt to control classroom behavior. Notice the slight changes in verbal behavior.

SELECTIVE-VERBATIM CLASS TRANSCRIPT

Teacher: What were some of the inventions? What were some of the changes happening in European life to create a new type of society? Can you come up with, off the top of your head, any examples of changes in how goods were transported, how things were being produced? What were some of the developments happening in the first half of the nineteenth century? Jerry?

Jerry: One of the larger developments would be mass production in a factory system in which now, instead of people, like, doing the cottage-type work or limited shops, they're getting a lot of people in one locale, making a lot of the same product on a large scale to make more products available to the public cheaper.

Teacher: Focusing the centralizing of the productive process in a factory. Good, OK.

Scott: Also, there was a railroad which linked the entire European continent together and made transportation of goods available to all people.

Teacher: The rapid transportation of goods. Railroads being key to that. Were there any other ways which goods were being transported more rapidly than they had once been able to? John.

John: Canals were being built and boats were becoming a mode of transportation for goods.

Teacher: OK, improvement of roads. The road, the macadam road, named after Macadam, in which, you know, different sizes of rocks were used to create a road that would hold up very heavy transportation, so you have an all-season road to transport goods over distances on the surface. So we have railroads, and canals. We have the different construction of roads, have dependable transportation. Brent.

Brent: Well, communication improvement as far as telegraph and telephone later in the century.

Teacher: OK. The rapid electronic spread of information. Anybody else? Other things that were happening in terms of industrialization?

Mikey: They have a larger work force because children and women were included too. They were working in the factories along with the men.

Teacher: The inclusion of women and children into the work force. OK, anybody else have anything else they'd like to add?

SELECTIVE VERBATIM

TEACHER QUESTIONS

What will you do next?
Did it make sense?
Do you have any questions?

PRAISE

Good.
Great.
I like the way you're sitting.

DIRECTIONS

The first thing we will do is . . .

OTHER OPTIONS

- Student Responses
- Student Questions
- Comments on Behavior Management
- Commands
- Reinforcement and/or
- Sequence

LEARNING CENTER #6: SCRIPT-TAPING TECHNIQUE

Directions:

1. The group designates a group leader who distributes materials and reviews the directions.
2. Each group member reads the description of script taping.
3. Group members divide themselves into pairs and decide who will speak first.
4. Select a timekeeper.
5. The first speaker talks for two minutes, while the listener records as much of the monologue as he or she can. At the end of the two minutes, the listener reads what has been recorded. (Note: Topics for speakers should be decided upon by the person who is speaking.)
6. Reverse roles and repeat Step 5.
7. The group leader facilitates discussion around the following questions:
   - A. What are the pros and cons of this tool?
   - B. What types of data could you collect using this tool?
   - C. When would you utilize this tool?

SCRIPT TAPING

The purpose of a script tape is to have a sequential record available with specific examples from the observed teaching episode for use in planning and conducting the instructional conference. The observer needs to record as much of what is said and done as possible. Following are guidelines to help you to record an adequate script tape:

1. Prior to the observation, write the name of the teacher, date, subject, time, etc., on paper.

2. For some, it may be helpful to diagram the classroom (primarily the teacher's and students' positions) before the lesson begins. If you don't know students' names, you can always label them during or after the lesson. The diagram can be helpful in recalling areas in which students were and were not working productively, could not see, were easily distracted, etc.

3. Choose a position in which you can see the teacher, the students, and the board/screen (if the teacher uses one) without becoming a distraction to the class. You may need to sit wherever you can find an empty chair.

4. Once the lesson begins, record as much as you can of what is said and done so you can recall "specific" examples for the instructional conference. You will soon develop your own "shorthand" and become selective as to what you can omit. If you find yourself unable to recall specific examples in conferences, you have not recorded enough in your script tape.

5. Occasionally, you will find it necessary to observe how students are working, how one particular student is reacting, or to just rest your hand. When you do this, indicate with some mark that the lesson continued while you were not script taping.

6. You may wish to record the time periodically in the left-hand margin for specific information as to how long different sections of the lesson continued.

7. Record as accurately as possible what the teacher writes on the chalkboard/transparency. Include position, size, etc., when relevant. (You may wish to focus on chalkboard techniques during the conference.)

8. When describing nonverbal behavior, record what the student(s) did. "Johnny stared out the window much of the time" is accurate, while "Johnny looked bored" is a judgment that does not belong in a script tape.

9. Do not intervene in the lesson. If students approach you with questions, you should explain that the student(s) need to seek help elsewhere as your job is to script-tape what is happening during the lesson. (Students should already know this.)

It goes without saying that the teacher has been informed that you will be recording what happens during the lesson, so you can use specific examples during the conference. It is helpful to show a copy of a typical script tape to teachers during orientation to observation. A demonstration or videotape of how script tapes are used can be reassuring.

SCRIPT TAPING

Teacher: Good morning. Please take a card and go to your group. Today we are going to rotate through learning centers on data collection. You will have this opportunity to try six different techniques for collecting data. Are there any questions?

Participant: How long will we spend at each center?

Teacher: About 15 minutes. You will have five minutes to try the technique, five minutes to review materials, and five minutes to debrief.

Participant: How many centers are there?

Teacher: Six.

ACTIVITY 3-16

NUTS AND BOLTS

***Purpose(s)*:** To practice data collection methods which may be used when observing new teachers

***Materials*:** As indicated in each module

***Trainer's Notes*:** This activity is designed to follow Activity 3-15, "Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms," and to provide additional practice in some of the data collection skills introduced in that activity.

One or more of the modules can be used in any one training session, depending on the needs of the participants and time available. A recommended order would be:

- Traffic Patterns (Class Traffic)
- Student Behaviors (At Task)
- Teacher Verbal Behaviors (Verbal Flow)
- Repeat! Repeat! Repeat! (Selective Verbatim)
- Yes and No (Selective Verbatim)
- Wait Time (Recording Time Between Question and Answer)
- Praise (Selective Verbatim)
- Scripting (Script Taping)

Although these modules can be used at different times, it is critical that all of them be used at sometime during a mentor's training.

A good follow-up to these modules is Activity 3-20, "Revolving Doors: A Videotape Reflection Cycle."

Process/Steps: *(See each module for specific steps.)*

Time Required: 10-40 minutes per module (8 modules)

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 1: TRAFFIC PATTERNS

Purpose(s): To create a chart that shows the traffic patterns of the teacher as he or she conducts a lesson

Materials: Blank seating chart of the training room and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: One seating chart may be sufficient for the entire class period; however, you may want to use two or three different plans during one observation. If more than one chart is used, make sure the times are written on each chart.

Discussion of the chart may center around children who need the most help, parts of the room that are frequented the most or least, and whether there should be more or less movement on the part of the teacher. Another traffic pattern that could be mapped is one for student movement. If there is considerable movement, you will want to have multiple floor plans and limit the traffic pattern on one chart to 10-15 minutes of class time, again noting the time on each chart.

Process/Steps:

1. Give a blank seating chart of the training room to each participant.
2. Have each participant fill in names on the seating chart and a code for empty seats while introducing themselves.
3. Discuss how to collect data on traffic patterns.
4. Teach a five- to ten-minute lesson on a topic of your choice.
5. As you teach, have participants track your traffic patterns.
6. At the conclusion of the lesson, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.
7. Before ending the session, ask participants to practice this technique in someone else's classroom. Ask them to try to use it in more than one classroom, preferably with teachers of varying levels of teaching experience.

Time Required: 10-15 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 2: STUDENT BEHAVIORS

Purpose(s): To collect data for the discussion of student behaviors

Materials:

First Workshop:	Enough copies of the handout "Student Academic Behavior Chart" or a student seating chart for each participant and a stop watch
Second Workshop:	Newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: When this technique is used, a "snapshot" of a class at any given time is created. Mentors record on-task and off-task behaviors of all students within the class by using the handout "Student Academic Behavior Chart" or a seating chart and scanning the room in a very specific pattern. Beginning with one corner of the room, mentors observe each student for three to five seconds and record one of several behaviors before moving on to the next student. A complete scan of all students in the class usually takes two to three minutes. Mentors also record the number of scans that occur and at what time each scan begins. Mentors talk to a new teacher about particular behaviors that the new teacher is interested in knowing about and create a code list to be used during the observation. The following example presents a code for how student behaviors might be recorded on a seating chart:

At-task behavior might be recorded as "✓" (or "A").
Off-task (stalling) behavior might be recorded as "S" (or "B").
Other productive work might be recorded as "P" (or "C").
Distracted or out of seat might be recorded as "O" (or "D").
Talking to neighbors might be recorded as "T" (or "E").

It is important that the new teacher knows the definitions of these behaviors. However, developing these definitions should be a collaborative effort versus one that is imposed upon the new teacher. It is crucial that the new teacher and mentor establish a mutual understanding of these definitions prior to the observation.

If the new teacher wants to know about the level of involvement of all students in the lesson, particularly when he or she may be working with only small groups of students at one time, this method can provide some helpful data. In addition, if the teacher is interested in the percentage of on-task behavior that occurs during a lesson, this method could provide that information.

Another way to use this chart is to isolate one student and tally how many times a behavior is demonstrated during a two- to four-minute period. This activity does not have to last the entire class period. However, it should cover 20-30 minutes of the class, in order to establish a pattern.

Process/Steps: (First Workshop)

1. Distribute the handout "Student Academic Behavior Chart" or a student seating chart to each participant.

2. Discuss the method of recording the data.

3. Ask the participants to use this method of data collection in someone else's classroom between now and the next workshop session. Ask them to try to use it in more than one classroom, preferably with teachers of varying levels of teaching experience.

4. Ask participants to bring their results to the next workshop.

Time Required: 20-30 minutes

Process/Steps: (Second Workshop)

1. Ask participants to form groups of four to six to discuss their findings.

2. On newsprint, have the groups list the types of discussions that could occur between the mentor and new teacher related to this type of data collection.

3. Ask each group to report three of their findings to the whole group.

4. At the conclusion of this module, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.

Time Required: 20-30 minutes

STUDENT ACADEMIC BEHAVIOR CHART

	Attentive (On Task)			**Inattentive** (Off Task)		
Student	Watching	Doing	Talking On Task	Not Watching	Not Doing	Talking Off Task
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						
9.						
10.						
11.						

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 3: TEACHER VERBAL BEHAVIORS

Purpose(s): To collect data for the discussion of the verbal behaviors of the new teacher

Materials:

First Workshop: Enough copies of the handout "Teacher Verbal Behaviors Chart" for each participant

Second Workshop: Newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: During a four-minute period, a mentor tallies the number of times a new teacher shows any of the behaviors listed on the "Teacher Verbal Behaviors Chart." This can be repeated as often as desired throughout a class period. A period of at least 20-30 minutes is recommended.

Process/Steps: (First Workshop)

1. Distribute the handout "Teacher Verbal Behaviors Chart."
2. Discuss the method of recording data.
3. Teach a five- to ten-minute lesson on a topic of your choice.
4. As you teach, have participants track your verbal behavior.
5. Before ending the session, ask participants to practice this technique in more than one classroom, preferably with different teachers of varying levels of teaching experience.
6. Ask participants to bring their results to the next workshop.

Time Required: 15 minutes

Process/Steps: (Second Workshop)

1. Ask participants to form groups of four to six to discuss their findings.
2. On newsprint, have the groups list the types of discussions that could occur between the mentor and new teacher related to this type of data collection.
3. Have each group report three of their findings to the whole group.
4. At the conclusion of this module, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.

Time Required: 30 minutes

TEACHER VERBAL BEHAVIORS CHART

Time	Giving Information	Giving Directions	Answering	Questioning	Praising	Disciplining

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 4: REPEAT! REPEAT! REPEAT!

Purpose(s): To practice a data collection technique that identifies repeated words or phrases

Materials: Audiotaped lesson (or videotaped lesson), cassette recorder (or VCR and monitor), newsprint, easel, markers, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: The importance of becoming conscious of repeated words is that they may be distracting to students as they learn.

The audiotaped (or videotaped) lesson should be at least 15 minutes long. You should decide whether participants will be listening for "yes," "OK," "all right," or another phrase or a combination of these. Make sure that everyone can hear the recording or the videotape clearly.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants generate a list of words that are often repeated by teachers and list them on newsprint.
2. Have participants decide which words they will look for and list them on a piece of paper.
3. Play the tape and have participants tally the number of times the word or words are said by the teacher.
4. Have the participants share their information with one or two others. Did they get the same information? If not, why not? How would this information be useful? What does it tell teachers?

Time Required: 30 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 5: YES and NO

Purpose(s): To practice a data collection method that enables mentors to identify how many questions a teacher asks for which a yes-or-no answer is expected as the response versus the answer to higher-order questions

Materials: Audiotaped lesson (or videotaped lesson), cassette recorder (or VCR and monitor), blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: The audiotaped (or videotaped) lesson should be at least 15 minutes long. You can use the same taped lesson that was used for "Module 4: Repeat! Repeat! Repeat!" Make sure that everyone can hear the recording or the videotape clearly.

It may also be necessary to point out when multiple questions are asked in succession without opportunities for students to respond or when higher-order questions are asked. These should be noted in the columns labeled "no response" and "multiple words," respectively.

A follow-up to this activity might lead to a discussion about higher-order questioning between the mentor and new teacher.

Process/Steps:

1. Have participants put the following words in columns on a piece of lined paper: *yes/no, one word, multiple words, no response,* and *other.*
2. Play the taped lesson while participants tally the number of questions asked by the teacher under each expected response category.
3. Have participants share their findings with someone else, discuss any discrepancies, and identify how this data might be valuable.
4. In a brief large-group discussion, ask participants to share reasons why the data might be valuable.

Time Required: 20 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 6: WAIT TIME

Purpose(s): To practice determining wait time

Materials: Two 12-minute videotaped lessons, VCR and monitor, stopwatches (optional), blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: The two lessons should demonstrate distinctively different wait times. Use stopwatches for the measurement of wait time or have participants count 1001, 1002, etc. Make sure that all can see and hear the video. If you do not have time to play all four 6-minute segments, do the activity using one segment from each tape.

This activity can also be done using audiotapes in the place of the videotapes.

Process/Steps:

1. Play videotape 1 for six minutes, while participants write down the number of seconds between the ending of a question and the soliciting of a response (wait time).
2. Have participants form pairs to discuss their findings. Are there any discrepancies? Why?
3. Play the first half of videotape 2 for six minutes, again having participants record the wait time.
4. Ask participants to again form pairs.
5. Play the second half of videotape 1. Ask one partner to record wait time as described in Step 1, while the other partner records what is happening in the classroom, i.e., specific student behaviors, comments, and on- or off-task behaviors.
6. Have each pair discuss the relationship, if any, between wait time and what was happening in the classroom.
7. Repeat Step 5 for the second half of videotape 2.
8. Have participants form groups of four. Discuss the relationship, if any, between wait time and what was happening in the classroom.
9. At the conclusion of this module, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.

Time Required: 40 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 7: PRAISE

Purpose(s): To practice recording and distinguishing types of praise

Materials: Videotaped lesson, VCR and monitor, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: The taped lesson should be at least 15 minutes long. An audiotape could be used, but you would miss any types of praise that were nonverbal in nature. Words like *good* may be used by a teacher repeatedly, and recording this as praise should be discussed first. Make sure that everyone can hear the lesson.

A discussion of body language may be helpful. For example, 55 percent of what we say is conveyed by our body language, 38 percent is conveyed by our tone of voice, and 7 percent by what we say.

Process/Steps:

1. In a large group, have participants brainstorm a list of body language cues that are positive, negative, and neutral. Do the same for tonal quality.
2. Ask participants to form pairs.
3. Play the videotape for five to six minutes. As they view the tape, have one partner record praise and the other nonverbal cues, i.e., body language and tone of voice.
4. In groups of four (two sets of pairs), have participants analyze and compare the similarities and differences in the data collected.
5. In the large group, ask one participant from each small group to share two or three key learnings.
6. At the conclusion of this module, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.

Time Required: 30 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-16

MODULE 8: SCRIPTING

***Purpose(s)*:** To practice scripting

***Materials*:** Audiotape of five-minute segments of lessons, cassette recorder, blank paper, and pencils or pens

***Trainer's Notes*:** This activity provides mentors with an opportunity to practice scripting. Make sure everyone is able to hear the tape. Scripting is an exercise that is very helpful when doing classroom observations. Through practice, one becomes better at scripting and devising his or her own shorthand methods.

***Process/Steps*:**

1. Play the tape for five minutes, having participants write down as much as they can of what was said.
2. Ask participants to form small groups of four to six.
3. Have participants share their notes of the experience.
4. Have participants brainstorm what they might have used for shortcuts, which would enable them to record more of what was said.
5. Play the same tape and repeat Step 1.
6. In their small groups, have participants share their improvement from the two different recordings.
7. Repeat this exercise for added practice.
8. At the conclusion of this module, ask participants to discuss when this method would be most beneficial to use with a new teacher and why.

***Time Required*:** 40 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-17

THE FIVE-MINUTE UNIVERSITY

Purpose(s): To practice pre- and post-conference skills through the teaching of and reflection on minilessons

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "The Five-Minute University," "Components of a Pre-Observation Conference," "Conferencing Skills that Support Teacher Reflection and Decision Making," and "Components of a Post-Observation Conference" for each participant; props (see Trainer's Notes); blank paper; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity provides an entry-level opportunity for mentors to practice conferencing skills. It should be stressed that conferencing skills require much practice, and that several follow-up sessions may be necessary before mentors are able to apply a developmental approach to conferencing. Follow-up activities such as Activity 3-18, "Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership"; Activity 3-19, "Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels"; and Activity 3-21, "Beyond Fashion: The Instructional Leadership Style of Best Fit" will address several aspects of teacher development as it relates to pre- and post-observation conferences.

It may be helpful to ask participants to read the section in Chapter 3 on instructional leadership prior to participating in this activity. It is important to emphasize that the primary goal of observation and conferencing is to provide a "mirror" of what transpired in the new teacher's classroom. The goal is to assist new teachers in becoming reflective about their teaching rather than for mentors to reflect their perceptions of what transpired.

This activity can be done in one of two ways. First, you can ask participants to prepare a minilesson of their choice ahead of time. Second, you can use the suggestions listed on the handout "The Five-Minute University" during the session. If you choose the latter, you need to make sure that you have the necessary props available. Regardless of which way the activity is done, the guidelines on the handout "The Five-Minute University" apply.

During the conduct of this activity, you will model the role of the mentor during a pre-conference and post-conference through role play. The role of the new teacher could be played by a participant or another trainer. In either case, you need to be familiar with the components of a pre-conference and a post-conference. You should also stress that the questions need not be asked in any order and that it is best to go into the conference knowing which questions to ask rather than having to refer to the handout.

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

You should also remind participants that the focus of the activity is on the development of conferencing techniques and not the comparison of teaching strategies. With that in mind, the five-minute lesson that they prepare should be something that is an avocation for them rather than something they typically teach in their classroom, for example, how to swing a golf club, how to sew a button on a shirt, or how to tie a scarf. This activity is designed for practicing pre- and post-conferencing skills, but it may be helpful if participants have had experience with methods of data collection (see Activity 3-15, "Responsive Viewing: A Look Inside Classrooms," and Activity 3-16, "Nuts and Bolts").

It may be necessary to remind participants that not everyone will have an opportunity to teach his or her minilessons. Depending upon time available and the number of participants, you will have to decide how many cycles can occur.

If you observe that overzealous mentors are monopolizing the conference, then it may be necessary to review the concepts of active listening in Activity 3-23, "Are You Listening?"

Process/Steps: *If you are able to ask participants to prepare minilessons prior to the training, you will want to give each participant a copy of the handout "The Five-Minute University" beforehand.*

1. Review the purpose of the activity: to have participants practice pre- and post-observation conferencing skills through the teaching of and reflection on minilessons.

2. Share the handouts "Components of a Pre-Observation Conference" and "Conferencing Skills that Support Teacher Reflection and Decision Making." Emphasize the importance of asking questions and that an initial question may not illicit an adequate response. Additional probing questions may need to be asked.

3. You and another trainer, or you and a participant, model a pre-conference for the entire group. If possible, you should be seated higher than the audience so that participants can best observe you.

4. Once the role play of the pre-conference is complete, ask participants for feedback: What went well? What was missing? What might have been done differently?

5. Ask participants to divide themselves into groups of three. One person will play the role of mentor; one will play the role of the teacher. The third person will play the role of the observer, who will share his or her observations of the conference with the mentor following the five-minute lesson. Throughout the activity, participants will take turns switching roles.

6. Allocating ten minutes, have participants conduct a pre-conference. During this time, have individuals playing the role of the new teacher conference about their five-minute lesson. The mentor may use the handout "Components of a Pre-Observation Conference" as a prompt.

7. Allow five minutes for observers to give feedback to mentors.

8. Ask participants, who are now in groups of three, to join another group of three to form a larger group of six.

9. In groups of six, have one of those playing the role of a new teacher teach his or her five-minute lesson. Have the first teacher teach his or her lesson to the observer and to the other three who have now joined that group. Have the mentor record observation data as discussed during the pre-conference.

10. At the end of five minutes, have the second "new teacher" teach his or her lesson. The roles of the others in the group are the same as those described in Step 9. [NOTE: You need to limit lessons to five minutes. While many lessons may not be complete, limiting the time is essential.]

11. Begin a second round of pre-conferencing and teaching. This time, have individuals assume roles that are different from those they assumed in round one. [NOTE: It may be necessary to limit the number of rounds of conferencing and teaching. It is also important to let participants know up front that it is possible that not all lessons will be taught.]

12. Share and review the handout "Components of a Post-Observation Conference."

13. Now have the individuals who modeled the initial role play (Step 3) role-play a post-conference.

14. Have participants give feedback on the model post-conference and ask them the same questions as described in Step 4.

15. In the original groups of three, have mentors and new teachers conduct a post-conference based upon the five-minute lesson. Have observers make observations about the post-conference that will be shared with the mentor. If there have been two rounds of pre-conference and teaching, then there should also be two rounds of post-conference.

16. For each round conducted, allow five minutes for observers to give feedback to mentors on the post-conference.

17. Debrief the activity by asking participants for their general impression of the activity. What did they learn? What worked well? What would they like to have done differently?

Time Required: 105 minutes for one round
135 minutes for two rounds
(You should allow 30 minutes for each additional round.)

THE FIVE–MINUTE UNIVERSITY

Purpose:

To practice pre- and post-conference skills through the teaching of and reflection on minilessons

What Preparation Is Needed?

In preparation for the next session, "The Five-Minute University," please prepare **no more than a five-minute** lesson which you will teach to three or four other adults. It is critical that the lesson not exceed the five-minute time limit.

What Kind of Lesson Should Be Prepared?

Lessons should address something that is an avocation rather than a sample of what is taught within academic classrooms. The following list presents some examples:

- How to tie a necktie
- How to draw a quick sketch
- How to grip a golf club
- How to grip a tennis racket
- How to make a 3-D star
- How to teach introductions, survival phrases, etc., in another language
- How to teach someone to hop, skip, or jump
- How to teach someone about one of the following phobias, for example, hydrophobia, acrophobia, claustrophobia, triskaidekaphobia
- How to hit a paper cup at 10 feet with a rubber band
- Other ideas . . .

Although the above is suggested, please feel free to develop a separate five-minute lesson topic. If, however, you decide to choose one of the above, the props and materials you will need will be supplied.

Will Everyone Teach Their Lesson?

Due to time constraints, only two out of every three participants will actually teach their five-minute lesson. With this in mind, please spend no more than 15-30 minutes preparing the lesson.

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

COMPONENTS OF A PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

Before the lesson, the teacher and observer discuss or clarify the following questions in any sequence:

1. When do you want me to observe, for example, **date and time?**
2. What is the **purpose of the observation?**
3. What is the **objective of the lesson** or the experiment within the lesson?
4. What has **led up to/will follow this lesson**?
5. What is the **sequence of events** within the lesson/experiment?
6. What **student behaviors** do you hope to hear/see?
7. What do you hope that **students will be able to do** following this lesson?
8. What **teaching strategies/behaviors** will you use or experiment with?
9. How are **the teaching strategies, desired student behaviors, and desired outcomes/objectives related**?
10. Do you have **any particular concerns** regarding any of the above?
11. Do you have **any additional information** you would like to share with me?
12. What **kind of data** would you like me to collect during the observation?
13. **In what form** should I collect the data?

During the lesson, the mentor records whatever data was agreed upon in the pre-conference.

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

CONFERENCING SKILLS THAT SUPPORT TEACHER REFLECTION AND DECISION MAKING

- ACTIVE LISTENING

  Silence -- Wait Time -- Congruent Body Language

  Acknowledging

  Paraphrasing

  Summarizing

  Interpreting or Inferring

- PROBING FOR SPECIFICITY

- SHARING DATA WITHOUT JUDGING

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

COMPONENTS OF A POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

After the lesson, the teacher reflects and the observer listens, asks clarifying questions, and shares data collected.

1. How did **you feel** about the lesson or the experiment? What went on that contributed to those feelings?
2. What do you **recall of student behaviors?**
3. How did **student behaviors compare to what you had hoped for?**
4. What do you **recall of your own behaviors and strategies** during the lesson?
5. How did **your strategies and behaviors compare** with what was planned?
6. What **data** do I have for you?
7. To what extent do you feel the **objective of the lesson or experiment** was achieved?
8. What might account for the **outcomes achieved?**
9. What have **you learned** from this lesson/experiment?
10. If you were to do it again, what would be the **"keepers"** and what might you do **differently**?

As the conference comes to a close . . .

The new teacher and mentor **reflect on the observation and conference process** and how they are working together. What are they finding useful? If they did it again, what might they change or ask their partner to do differently?

Source: Haley, Op. Cit., 3-22.

ACTIVITY 3-18

WEAVING THE THREADS: THE WHAT, WHY, AND HOW OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Purpose(s): To understand leadership styles and interpersonal behavior in terms of Hunt's conceptual levels of teachers

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Hunt's Levels of Structure" and "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators" for each participant; enough copies of the handout "Weaving the Threads" cut up into squares and placed in envelopes, one for each group of four participants; overhead entitled "Weaving the Threads"; overhead projector and screen; overhead markers; newsprint; easel; and markers

Trainer's Notes: This is a follow-up to Activity 1-3, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1," and Activity 3-17, "The Five-Minute University."

To prepare contents for envelope, cut along the dotted lines on the handout "Weaving the Threads." Mix up the squares and put all the squares from one sheet in an envelope. Prepare enough envelopes so that each group of four participants will have one.

Process/Steps:

1. Review information on Hunt's conceptual levels, using the handout "Hunt's Levels of Structure."

2. Ask the participants to form groups of four.

3. Give each small group an envelope containing conceptual levels of new teachers, descriptions of leadership styles, and mentor responses (i.e., the cut-up handout "Weaving the Threads").

4. Ask the small groups to match a new teacher's need for structure with an appropriate leadership style and an example of a mentor's response to that teacher. Then, request that they order the groups of three according to increased conceptual flexibility.

5. With you as recorder, have the participants direct you to fill in the blocks on the blank overhead "Weaving the Threads."

6. Depending on the size of the group, either conduct a large-group discussion or ask two original, small groups of four to combine. Have participants discuss the following questions:

    - Were there any discrepancies in how your groups ordered the squares from the consensus arrived at in the large-group discussion?
    - What have you learned through this activity?
    - What are the implications of your learnings to your role as mentors?

If done in small groups, have each group choose a recorder who will record the comments of the group on newsprint.

7. Ask each group to report out three major learnings and three major implications for the role of a mentor teacher.

8. Distribute the handout "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators." Ask the group to label which category is the what (style of leadership), the why (conceptual level), and the how (mentor's responses or interpersonal behavior) of instructional leadership.

***Time Required*:** 75 minutes

HUNT'S LEVELS OF STRUCTURE

There are a number of aspects to the concept of structure. Since the term *structure* has ambiguous meanings, the operational differences between Conceptual Stages A, B, and C instruction are based on the following:

	Stage A	Stage B	Stage C
Structure:	high	moderate (mixture high/low)	low
Concepts:	concrete		abstract
Time span:	short		long
Frequency of practice:	multiple practice		single
Advance organizers:	multiple use of organizers		few (if any) advance organizers
Complexity of learning tasks:	divided into small steps and recycled		learning tasks clustered into "wholes"
Theory:	concretely matched with experiential examples		generalized, including collaborative classroom research
Instructor support:	consistent and frequent		occasional

The ultimate goal of growth in mentoring is to assist mentors involved in helping new teachers move toward Stage C. The need to match and gradually mismatch the amount of structure is necessary. The mentor/support team members should match the amount of structure needed and then gradually mismatch to promote the new teacher's growth toward Stage C.

Source: Adapted with permission of the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division of Program Approval from North Carolina Mentor/Support Team Training Program. (c) 1987, 271-301. Authors: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall.

FIGURE 3.8 INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLES: BEHAVIORAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL INDICATORS

Hunt's Conceptual Levels: Teachers' Conceptual Flexibility	Style of Instructional Leadership That Usually Fits Best	Interpersonal Behavior of Instructional Teacher Might Look Like This
Stage A Teacher: Teacher prefers high level of structure **Example**: *"I have tried the only way I know how, and it just did not work. What do I do?"*	**Direct Informational**: Maximum responsibility on mentor, minimum responsibility on new teacher Provides high level of structure	Presents, clarifies, listens, directs, standardizes, reinforces **Example**: *"I know you feel that the lesson did not go well. I have taught it this way. . . . Here is a sample lesson you can follow."*
Stage B Teacher: Teacher prefers moderate degree of structure **Example**: *"There seems to be a need to shift how I am teaching this. I have some thoughts about how, but I am not sure. Have you got some ideas?"*	**Collaborative**: Shared responsibility between mentor and new teacher Provides moderate level of structure	Listens and reflects, then clarifies, presents, analyzes problems, encourages mutuality in planning and in standardization **Example**: *"This is one possibility. What do you think? Could I have been misreading this?"*
Stage C Teacher: Teacher prefers low level of structure **Example**: *"How students deal with conflict and how they actively assimilate new learning are two key concepts for this next unit. I have put together several lessons, using a variety of approaches. What do you think?"*	**Nondirective**: Minimum responsibility on mentor, maximum responsibility on new teacher Provides low level of structure	Listens, reflects, clarifies, encourages, requests new teacher to analyze problem, standardizes using new teacher's criteria **Example**: *"It seems clear that you would like to teach conflict resolution skills through active learning. . . . Tell me more about that."*

WEAVING THE THREADS

NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL New teacher prefers high level of structure	LEADERSHIP STYLE Maximum responsibility on mentor, minimum responsibility on new teacher	MENTOR'S RESPONSE "I know you feel the lesson did not work well. I have taught it this way. . . . Here is a sample lesson you can follow."
NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL New teacher prefers moderate level of structure	LEADERSHIP STYLE Shared responsibility between mentor and new teacher	MENTOR'S RESPONSE "This is one possibility. What do you think? Could I have been misreading this?"
NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL New teacher prefers low level of structure	LEADERSHIP STYLE Minimum responsibility on mentor, maximum responsibility on new teacher	MENTOR'S RESPONSE "It seems clear that you would like to teach conflict resolution skills through active learning . . . . Tell me more about that."

WEAVING THE THREADS

NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL	LEADERSHIP STYLE	MENTOR'S RESPONSE
NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL	LEADERSHIP STYLE	MENTOR'S RESPONSE
NEW TEACHER'S CONCEPTUAL LEVEL	LEADERSHIP STYLE	MENTOR'S RESPONSE

ACTIVITY 3-19

PRE-CONFERENCING AND TEACHERS' CONCEPTUAL LEVELS

Purpose(s): To practice pre-conferencing skills relative to Hunt's conceptual levels of teachers

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Hunt's Levels of Structure" on page 3-179, "Descriptions of Hunt's Conceptual Stages: Teacher Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching," "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators" on page 3-180, and "Components of a Pre-Observation Conference" on page 3-173 for each participant; blank paper; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is designed as a follow-up to Activity 1-3, "Promoting Teacher Growth, Part 1"; Activity 3-17, "The Five-Minute University"; and Activity 3-18, "Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership." The primary focus of the activity is to allow participants to practice appropriate responses to teachers at various points on the continuum of conceptual flexibility. It is important for you to remind participants that teachers may shift to an earlier stage of conceptual flexibility when presented with a new learning. This stage may not be their "usual" frame of reference.

It is advisable to model this pre-conference activity once before participants engage in it. Then, allow for questions before they proceed on their own.

The miniactivity, "Now That You Mention It," described in Step 6, is a Stage B-level activity. It provides procedural structure, but it allows individuals' responses to be unstructured or open-ended.

Process/Steps:

1. Review materials and purpose of the activity with the participants.

2. Briefly review the handouts "Hunt's Levels of Structure" and "Descriptions of Hunt's Conceptual Stages: Teacher Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching" as well as leadership styles (directive, collaborative, and nondirective) as described in the handout "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators."

3. Ask the participants to divide themselves into groups of three. In these groups, have them review Hunt's Conceptual Stages and determine who is going to be the Stage A, B, or C teacher in the upcoming role play. Have each participant take turns playing the role of teacher (Stage A, B, or C), mentor, and observer in the activity.

4. Ask participants to think of a lesson they will teach soon or have taught recently. Then, have them describe in writing what the lesson is and the concerns that they might have in their selected role as a Stage A, B, or C teacher.

5. Using the lesson they just thought about, have participants conduct three cycles of the pre-conference. Refer participants to the handout "Components of a Pre-Observation Conference." In each cycle, have each participant assume a different role, for example, teacher, mentor, or observer. At the end of each cycle, have the observer give the "mentor" feedback on how well his or her responses matched the levels of the Stage A, B, or C teacher.

6. Have participants process their learning from this activity, using the following miniactivity.

Now That You Mention It

Quite often in a new learning experience, we are excited and walk away with new understanding. Yet, weeks go by without further discussion of the new topic. Then, a colleague, who may have discovered the same new learning, may say to us a month or more after *our* experience, "Have you heard about. . . ?" Our reply might be, "Now that you mention it. . . ."

Rather than wait to recall new information, this activity will require and allow participants to recall new information immediately. Ask the participants to select a partner. For 1-1/2 minutes, the first partner will talk about what he or she has learned during the session and what those new learnings have triggered in him or her. After 1-1/2 minutes, the partners switch, i.e., the one talking now listens and vice versa. The new talker should add to, rather than reiterate, what has already been said.

The sequence of listening and talking will alternate between partners as follows: 1-1/2 minutes for the first partner, 1-1/2 for the second partner; 1 minute for the first partner, 1 minute for the second partner; and 30 seconds for the first partner, 30 seconds for the second partner.

Time Required: 90 minutes

DESCRIPTIONS OF HUNT'S CONCEPTUAL STAGES: TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING AND TEACHING

Stage A

- Shows strong evidence of concrete thinking.
- Sees knowledge as fixed.
- Employs a singular tried-and-true method.
- Exhibits compliance as a learner and expects the same from pupils.
- Appears low on self-direction and initiative; needs detailed instructions.
- Doesn't distinguish between theory and facts.
- Relies almost exclusively on advance organizers.
- Views teaching as "filling the students up with facts."
- Stays at Bloom's Levels One and Two regardless of student level.
- Enjoys highly structured activities for self and for pupils.
- Appears very uncomfortable with ambiguous assignments.
- Does not question authority.
- Follows a curriculum guide as if it were "carved in stone."
- Verbalizes feelings at a limited level; has difficulty recognizing feelings in pupils.
- Appears reluctant to talk about own inadequacies; blames pupils exclusively.

Stage B

- Shows evidence of a growing awareness of difference between concrete versus abstract thinking.
- Separates facts, opinions, and theories about teaching and learning.
- Employs some different teaching models in accord with student differences.
- Displays evidence of teaching for generalization as well as skills.
- Shows some evidence of systematic "matching and mismatching"; can vary structure.
- Exhibits some openness to innovations and can make some appropriate adaptations.
- Shows sensitivity to pupil's emotional needs.
- Enjoys some level of autonomy; self-directed learning a goal for self and for the pupils.
- Employs Bloom's Taxonomy, One though Four, when appropriate.
- Produces evaluations that are appropriate to assignments.

Stage C

- Understands knowledge as a process of successive approximations.
- Shows evidence of originality in adapting innovations to the classroom.
- Appears comfortable in applying all appropriate teaching models.
- Is most articulate in analyzing one's own teaching in both content and feeling.
- Has a high tolerance for ambiguity and frustration; can stay on task despite major distractions.
- Does not automatically comply with directions -- asks examiner's reasons.
- Fosters an intensive questioning approach with students.
- Uses all six levels of Bloom's Taxonomy when appropriate.
- Responds appropriately to the emotional needs of all pupils.
- "Matches and mismatches" with expert flexibility.
- Exhibits careful evaluations based on objective criteria according to level of assignment.

Source: Lois Thies-Sprinthall and Norman A. Sprinthall, Op. Cit., 3-180.

ACTIVITY 3-20

REVOLVING DOORS: A VIDEOTAPE REFLECTION CYCLE

Purpose(s): To provide new teachers with an opportunity to examine and reflect upon videotapes of their teaching and to provide mentors with an opportunity to examine and reflect upon videotapes of their conferencing

Materials: A videotape camera, a VCR and monitor, and blank videotapes

Trainer's Notes: This activity is designed to be used by pairs of new teachers and mentors, *not* as a large-group activity. The videotape cycle described here links the professional development of new teachers and mentor teachers.

Since confidentiality is an essential component in the mentor/new teacher relationship, the step that asks that another colleague videotape the post-conference between the mentor and new teacher may need to be modified. If new teachers are opposed to including another colleague, the mentor and new teacher might simply set up the video camera to record themselves.

This cycle of videotaping and reflection is designed to be completed within a two-hour time frame. Time limitations may require, however, a certain time span between the actual taping and the viewing of that taping. Although the potential need to improvise is recognized, it is noteworthy that the process of reflection will be enhanced if the activity is not interrupted.

Process/Steps:

1. The mentor conducts a pre-observation conference with the new teacher.
2. Immediately following the pre-conference, the new teacher's lesson is videotaped. At the same time, the mentor observes and collects data agreed upon by the mentor and new teacher during the pre-conference.
3. The new teacher and mentor view the videotape immediately following the lesson. The new teacher discusses the videotape as it is playing without interruption or comments by the mentor teacher. The new teacher controls the VCR functions, for example, play, pause, fast forward, and rewind. Cuing the new teacher may be necessary to break long periods of silence, for example, "What were you thinking there?" or "What is happening here?"
4. The new teacher and the mentor engage in a reflective dialogue about the instructional episode in a manner similar to a post-observation conference. Another mentor colleague videotapes the post-conference conversation.

Source: Adapted with permission from Cherie Major and Walter Kimball of the University of Southern Maine.

5. The two mentor colleagues immediately view the videotape of the conference. The new teacher leaves. The mentor discusses the videotape of the conference as it is playing without interruption or comments by the mentor colleague.

6. The mentor and mentor colleague engage in a reflective dialogue about the conference.

Time Required: 120 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-21

BEYOND FASHION: THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE OF BEST FIT

Purpose(s): To become familiar with direct informational, collaborative, and nondirective styles of leadership and understand when to use which one when working with new teachers

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators" on page 3-180, "Different Leadership Styles: Examples of Mentors' Responses to New Teachers," "Competency Model," and "Categories of Competence" for each participant; overheads of "Levels of Abstract Thinking" and "Johari's Window of Competence"; newsprint; easel; markers; blank paper; overhead projector and screen; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This is designed as a follow-up activity to Activity 3-18, "Weaving the Threads: The What, Why, and How of Instructional Leadership," and Activity 3-19, "Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels." Participants should have had some experience with data collection techniques and conferencing skills before engaging in this activity.

It is important to stress the value of each leadership style. Individuals may indicate that they are more comfortable with one leadership style rather than another. You should acknowledge these preferences, while guiding participants toward an understanding of why it is critical for mentors to be able to utilize each leadership style, if necessary.

You will need to review and be familiar with the section on instructional leadership in Chapter 3. When using "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators," you should point out that the leadership styles on the chart are most appropriate when teachers are either at a certain conceptual level *or* when they demonstrate certain levels of competence. Participants should not assume that Stage A teachers, for example, display the "miracle" category of competence or that Stage C teachers are "competent." Teachers at each of the conceptual stages may demonstrate any of the four categories of competence described in the chart.

You should not express a value judgment about which is better, i.e., Stage A, Stage B, or Stage C teachers. At the same time, however, it must be noted that Stage C teachers are usually more able to deal with the complex and changing nature of schools and classrooms.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of the activity: to facilitate the participants' ability to identify three different leadership styles, determine which style they might prefer to employ, and become familiar with some ways of identifying the leadership style of "best fit" when working with new teachers.

2. Using the handouts "Instructional Leadership Styles: Behavioral and Developmental Indicators" and "Different Leadership Styles: Examples of Mentors' Responses to New Teachers," provide an overview of each leadership style and some of the behaviors, statements, or questions one might expect to observe when someone is employing a direct informational, collaborative, and nondirect instructional leadership style.

3. Ask participants to think about a past experience when they were in a leadership role, i.e., with another colleague or teacher intern. Ask them to briefly describe in writing:

   - the purpose of that leadership role;
   - themselves as leaders in that particular role;
   - the person with whom they were working (for example, did the person always want to use the mentor's ideas or did they want to use their own? Were they compliant with all rules or did they question authority?);
   - how successful or unsuccessful they felt the relationship was and why; and
   - what would they do the same or differently and why, if they found themselves in the same situation again.

4. Ask participants to pair up with another person and share their descriptions.

5. Spend 10-15 minutes debriefing this portion of the activity. Ask members of the entire group to voluntarily share what they would do the same or differently, if they were in the same situation again and why.

6. Briefly review "Hunt's Conceptual Stages" and "Levels of Structure." (You may refer participants to handouts from previous sessions or use the overhead "Levels of Abstract Thinking.")

7. You and another trainer, or you and a volunteer participant, should model both a mismatch and an effective match of leadership style to conceptual level. Conceptual level is one indicator of when to use which style of leadership; level of competence is another.

8. Introduce the "Competency Model," using the handouts "Competency Model" and "Categories of Competence" and the overhead "Johari's Window Model of Competency."

9. Review the connections between the three concepts: instructional leadership style, conceptual levels, and levels of competence. It may be helpful to refer back to the handout "Instructional Leadership Styles: Developmental and Behavioral Indicators."

10. Ask participants to think about a recent observation or conference cycle that they had with a new teacher with whom they are working. Ask them to write a letter to themselves describing the leadership style they used and some examples of how an observer would know that was the style they were using. In retrospect, ask them to describe what level of competence and conceptual level they believe the new teacher was demonstrating and how they knew that.

11. In pairs, ask participants to share their descriptions, thoughts, and reflections of what they wrote.

Time Required: 120 minutes

DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES: EXAMPLES OF MENTORS' RESPONSES TO NEW TEACHERS

In using a DIRECT INFORMATIONAL STYLE, mentors could make statements like:

- I know you feel that the lesson did not go well. This is the way I teach reading. . . . Here is a sample lesson you can follow.
- I understand your frustration. The reason the kids were not paying attention is because you gave them too many directions in the beginning.
- I know that you did not get through what you had planned. You need to have your manipulatives ready and on the table when you are trying to teach that type of math lesson in 20 minutes.
- I am aware that you are trying to have your materials, chemicals, etc., as close at hand as possible. However, those chemicals are not stored properly. If those two were ever allowed to mix, it would be hazardous. You must move them right away.

In using a COLLABORATIVE STYLE, mentors could make statements like:

- Your sense of that lesson was that it went well and worked for most of the students but not all. You think that there is something lacking in how you presented the lesson. As I think back, and as the data suggest, I believe you are right. Most of the students were nodding or jumping ahead to the task after you used the overhead and talked them through what each of the tools and parts were for. Let's brainstorm . . . are there other ways of presenting the challenge that might have helped those four students who did not seem to get it?
- This is one possibility. What do you think? Could I have been misreading this?
- Can we agree that the problem stemmed from Enrique's unwillingness to work with the rest of the group?

In using a NONDIRECTIVE STYLE, mentors could make statements like:

- I thought about your suggestion. Am I correct in assuming that you have decided to group the students homogeneously next time? When you try this, how will you know if you are successful?
- From what you have said, it seems clear that you would like to explore teaching conflict resolution skills through active learning. How do you plan to put that unit together? What outcomes are you looking for? Tell me more about that.
- You have just described two or three solutions. Let's talk about what some of the possible consequences might be for each. What would be happening to let you know that?

COMPETENCY MODEL

Rationale: All of us work in each of these categories almost every day. If we understand which one we are working in, we are more likely to be able to handle the stress and to see our situation with humor and insight. Mentors become better able to respond to new teachers when they can understand and identify the competency level of the new teacher.

MIRACLE	**DON'T KNOW/CAN'T DO** - (Unconscious Incompetence) Too frequently we are asked to do something for which we have had no preparation, teaching, or experience, but which we must do because of our particular role in the situation. If we are effective in performing whatever it is we have been asked to do, it will probably be a miracle. Miracles do seem to happen, although not very often. Depending on miracles can be extremely precarious and stressful. Try to avoid this category, if at all possible. If not, pray a lot and keep your sense of humor.
MAGIC	**DON'T KNOW/CAN DO** - (Unconscious Competence) Some things we do very well. We have a real flair for an activity and do it with competence and style. We work at an intuitive level. When asked to analyze the elements which have made the activity successful, we cannot do it. To others, it looks like magic. We, too, feel a sense of magic. There is much power in this category, but unless we can analyze the elements which give it power, we continue to rely on magic. When opportunities are provided for teachers to reflect on the magical experience, they become more likely to shift into the "Competence" mode, or knowing why it worked.
THEORY	**KNOW/CAN'T DO** - (Conscious Incompetence) This category can bring great stress if we must work with others who expect us to lead them or to act as a teacher. We understand and can recite the principles of teaching, leadership, and communication but can actually use few of them. Our behaviors contradict our knowledge. We lose the trust and acceptance of others and can become known as an inhabitant of an ivory tower.
COMPETENCE	**KNOW/CAN DO** - (Conscious Competence) We can describe, analyze, and do it. We are competent and consistent. This is the category of satisfaction and ego enhancement. Enjoy every moment of it, while still realizing that life does not let us stay here indefinitely. Sooner than we would like, we find ourselves in one of the other three categories.

Source: Little and Nelson, Op. Cit., 3-14.

CATEGORIES OF COMPETENCE

"What New Teachers Might Sound Like . . ."

When mentors listen to what, how, and when new teachers comment on their own performance, it is important for mentors to caution themselves against jumping to conclusions too quickly. Often an initial statement by a new teacher, when heard in isolation, can lead the mentor to assume a level of competence that is not accurate. The following statements are offered as possible indicators; however, it is **critical** that mentors check their assumptions with follow-up questions before jumping into a style of leadership.

MIRACLE . . .

"That lesson flowed really well, but I do not know why it worked today and not the other ten times that I have tried it!"

MAGIC . . .

Mentor:	"You handled that situation very well. You are very skilled at dealing with conflict. Tell me, how do you know just what to do?"
New Teacher:	"Well, thanks, but I really cannot describe how I know . . . I just do it."

THEORY . . .

"I know that peer conferencing is a critical part of the writing process. Students need to practice receiving and giving feedback and learn to view writing from different perspectives. However, I have no idea how to make that happen!"

COMPETENCE . . .

"I wanted the students to take one jump rope, go back to their own space, make a circle with the jump rope, and stand inside that circle. By having the jump ropes untangled and lined up, I was able to quickly get the entire class set up with their circle ropes. If I had merely left all of the jump ropes tangled together in one area, students might have been distracted and the process prolonged."

LEVELS OF ABSTRACT THINKING

LOW	MODERATE	HIGH
Hunt's Conceptual Level STAGE A	Hunt's Conceptual Level STAGE B	Hunt's Conceptual Level STAGE C
Is confused about the situation.	Can define a situation by focusing on one dimension.	Can define a situation by drawing on relationships between several sources of information.
Does not know what can be done and asks to be shown.	Can think of several responses.	Can relate the information to changes in classroom practice and can generate many alternative responses.
Has habitual responses to varying situations.	Has difficulty in thinking of consequences of changing the situation.	Can evaluate the consequences of each response and choose the best alternative.

Source: From Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*, Second Edition. Copyright (c) 1990 by Allyn and Bacon. Reprinted by permission, 62.

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JOHARI'S WINDOW
MODEL OF COMPETENCY

	DON'T KNOW	KNOW
CAN'T DO	"MIRACLE" (Unconscious Incompetence)	"THEORY" (Conscious Incompetence)
CAN DO	"MAGIC" (Unconscious Competence)	"COMPETENCE" (Conscious Competence)

Sources: Little and Nelson, Op. Cit., 3-14.

Saphier and Gower, Op. Cit., 3-6.

ACTIVITY 3-22

CHANGING THE GAME: AN INSIDE VIEW OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Purpose(s): To introduce various styles of dealing with conflict and provide participants with an opportunity to identify their usually preferred style of dealing with conflict

Materials: Enough copies of the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument and handout "Changing the Game" for each participant; overheads "Perception Versus Reality," "Steps to Consider in Getting to Yes," and "Thoughts to Ponder"; overhead projector and screen; newsprint; easel; markers; stopwatch; blank paper; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This is designed as an awareness-level activity. It should be stressed that further conflict resolution study may be needed before participants feel competent in employing new strategies. You should be familiar with the concepts from *Getting to Yes*: *Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In* (Fisher, Ury, and Patton 1991).

It is important to note that the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument has all rights reserved. Duplication in whole or part is prohibited. Copies of the instrument may be purchased by writing XICOM, Inc., Woods Road RR2, Tuxedo, NY 10987, or by calling (800) 759-4266.

If possible, you may want to consider having participants complete the Thomas-Kilman survey and score it prior to engaging in this activity. This would cut approximately 20 minutes from the time needed. A caution to consider, however, is that a participant may join the session at the last minute and not have been able to respond to the instrument prior to the session. In this case, you may need more time to accommodate that individual.

The results of the conflict mode instrument do not refer to personality types or styles of instructional leadership. Some common concerns are addressed in a handout "Questions Most Often Asked about the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument" that accompanies the instrument.

For guides to effective group process, see the following in the Appendices:

- "Guide to Facilitation" on page 3-259;
- "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy" on page 3-269;
- "Approaches to Decision Making" on page 3-273; and
- "The Nominal Group Process" on page 3-277.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of the activity and the agenda for this session. This can be done on newsprint or using an overhead.

2. Ask participants to think about an unresolved conflict they have experienced between themselves and one other person. Ask them to briefly describe, in writing, the conflict and their behavior as well as that of the other person. When participants have completed this assignment, let them know they will come back to this later in the session. Encourage them to consider these scenarios as they experience the upcoming activities.

3. Unless done ahead of time, have participants respond to the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument. Ask participants to respond by selecting the choice that best describes them. You should reinforce the fact that the best possible answer may not be one of the choices given. Ask participants to refrain from scoring the instrument at this time.

4. Have participants pair up. Tell them that they are going to thumb *wrestle* with their *opponent*. They need to begin by facing each other and shaking hands. From the handshake grasp, they must slide their hands away from one another until they interlock their fingers by curling the tips of their fingers around the tips of their *opponent's* fingers. **The purpose of the thumb wrestle is to get as many points as possible.** Points are gained in one of two ways. If you *pin* the other person's thumb under your own, you get two points. If your thumb gets *pinned* by your opponent you get one point. Participants will have 60 seconds to get points. When everyone is in position, begin.

   Following the thumb wrestle, ask participants by show of hands how many got at least 1 point, 3 points, 5 points, 7 points, 10 points, or more than 10 points. Usually, individuals will score less than 10 points. In some cases, individuals may score a very high number of points -- 30, 40, 50, or more. In these cases, ask those partners to demonstrate to the rest of the group how they accomplished the task. (If participants have focused on the purpose, they will have allowed one another to get pinned as many times as possible. This maximizes the points for each person.)

5. Debrief the thumb wrestle activity. You should ask participants what the stated purpose of the activity was, for example, "to get as many points as possible." Be prepared for individuals who challenge your stated purpose. For example, they might say, "You said the purpose was to beat my opponent by gaining the most points." In cases like that you need to talk about assumptions Versus reality. (The overhead "Perceptions Versus Reality" can be useful here.)

   It is also important to note the importance of choosing language or setting up terms that are competitive and imply a zero-sum, or win/lose, solution. Using terms like *opponent*, *wrestle*, and *pin*, and setting up a hierarchal point system encourages participants to filter the challenge in a competitive way.

6. Ask participants to go back to the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument and score their responses. Talk about the five styles of dealing with conflict and the pros and cons of each which are discussed within the instrument. You need to let participants know that disclosure of their personal results is their choice. They are not required to share results with other participants. This is a self-awareness tool.

7. Ask participants for comments or questions regarding the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument. Ask them to discuss the similarities or differences between their results on the instrument and their behavior during the thumb wrestle.

8. Using the overhead "Steps to Consider in Getting to Yes," you should review the four steps described in the book *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In* by Roger Fisher, William Ury, and Bruce Patton. (You might find it helpful to use the handout "Changing the Game" to outline the differences between hard, soft, and principled negotiation.)

9. You can either describe or role-play the following scenario. Three siblings are arguing over an orange. There is only one orange, and they all want it very much. In the middle of the argument, one of their parents comes into the room. After hearing what the argument was all about, the parent slices the orange in thirds and proceeds to give each sibling one third of the orange. At this, the three siblings abandon the orange and leave in a huff.

   The solution to the conflict would have been clear if any of the children or the parent had asked the question, "Why do you want the orange?" One sibling wanted the rind of the orange to bake bread; another sibling needed the inside of the orange to make juice; and the third wanted the seeds to grow a tree.

   The moral is . . . quite often difference can be the source of the solution.

10. Ask participants to refer back to the conflicts and behaviors they described at the beginning of the session. Encourage them to consider the four steps in "Getting to Yes," styles of resolving conflict, and all else that has been discussed at this point in the session. In pairs, ask them to share the conflict behaviors they described earlier in the session and what they might do differently given new or revised information.

11. Ask participants to share any comments or new learnings with the large group. Record these learnings on newsprint.

12. (Optional) When facilitating new learning, it is helpful to provide participants with an opportunity to verbally process new ideas or newly validate old ideas, while having to listen to another person. For six minutes, allow participants to experience a miniactivity entitled "Now That You Mention It." (*See directions in Step 6 of Activity 3-19, "Pre-conferencing and Teachers' Conceptual Levels" on page 3-184.*)

13. As a wrap-up, display the overhead "Thoughts to Ponder" and pose the question: How can you integrate what you have learned with your role as mentor?

Time Required: 120 minutes

CHANGING THE GAME

Problem Positional Bargaining: Which Game Should You Play?		**Solution** Change the Game -- Negotiate on the Merits
Soft	**Hard**	**Principled**
Participants are friends.	Participants are adversaries.	Participants are problem solvers.
The goal is agreement.	The goal is victory.	The goal is a wise outcome reached efficiently and amicably.
Make concessions to cultivate the relationship.	Demand concessions as a condition of the relationship.	**Separate the people from the problem.**
Be soft on the people and the problem.	Be hard on the people and the problem.	Be soft on the people, hard on the problem.
Trust others.	Distrust others.	Proceed independent of trust.
Change your position easily.	Dig in to your position.	**Focus on interests, not positions.**
Make offers.	Make threats.	Explore interests.
Disclose your bottom line.	Mislead as to your bottom line.	Avoid having a bottom line.
Accept one-sided losses to reach agreement.	Demand one-sided gains as the price agreement.	**Invent options for mutual gain.**
Search for the single answer: the one *they* will accept.	Search for the single answer: the one *you* will accept.	Develop multiple options to choose from; decide later.
Insist on agreement.	Insist on your position.	**Insist on using objective criteria.**
Try to avoid a contest of will.	Try to win a contest of will.	Try to reach a result based on standards independent of will.
Yield to pressure.	Apply pressure.	Reason and be open to reason; yield to principle, not pressure.

Source: Fisher, Ury, and Patton, Op. Cit., 3-35: 13.

PERCEPTION VERSUS REALITY

Tenant's Perceptions:	**Landlady's Perceptions:**
The rent is already too high.	The rent has not been increased for a long time.
With other costs going up, I can't afford to pay more for housing.	With other costs going up, I need more rental income.
The apartment needs painting.	He has given that apartment heavy wear and tear.
I know people who pay less for a comparable apartment.	I know people who pay more for a comparable apartment.
Young people like me cannot afford to pay high rents.	Young people like him tend to make noise and to be hard on an apartment.
The rent ought to be low because the neighborhood is run-down.	We landlords should raise rents in order to improve the quality of the neighborhood.
I am a desirable tenant with no dogs or cats.	His hi-fi drives me crazy.
I always pay the rent whenever she asks for it.	He never pays the rent until I ask for it.
She is cold and distant; she never asks me how things are.	I am a considerate person who never intrudes on a tenant's privacy.

Source: Fisher, Ury, and Patton, Op. Cit., 3-35: 24.

STEPS TO CONSIDER IN "GETTING TO YES"

PROBLEM

(DON'T BARGAIN OVER POSITIONS)

METHOD OF RESOLUTION

1. Separate the People from the Problem
2. Focus on Interests, not Positions
3. Invent Options for Mutual Gain
4. Insist on Using Objective Criteria

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Source: Fisher, Ury, and Patton, Op. Cit., 3-35: 1 and 15.

THOUGHTS TO PONDER

"Changing behavior is easier than changing assumptions."

"Know thyself. When you point a finger at someone else, three are pointing back at you."

"Life is not a zero-sum model. Life is an improvement model."

"Ego speak is when your need to tell the story is greater than the other person's need to hear it."

"We cannot change the other person, but we can change our response to the other person's behavior. In doing so, we are likely to affect change in his or her behavior."

"When our behaviors consistently change over time, we can also change our assumptions."

"We cannot change the challenge; we can change the game."

ACTIVITY 3-23

ARE YOU LISTENING?

Purpose(s): To learn and practice active listening

Materials: Enough copies of Chapters IV and V from *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People* by Thomas Gordon (New York, NY: Wyden Books, 1977, 49-91) for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: It is important to note that you can obtain *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People* from your local public or college library. Permission to copy and distribute text from this book must be obtained through a letter of request sent to Random House, Inc., 201 East 50th Street, New York, NY 10022 (212-751-2600).

Mentoring new teachers requires supporting them in their efforts, providing them with objective data, problem solving with them, and encouraging them to try new things and develop their own personal styles of reflective teaching. In all of these, the mentor's skills are founded on the ability to really hear and validate new teachers' concerns, ideas, and questions, and to respond in a way that allows new teachers to form and test their own hypotheses -- that is, to suggest their own solutions.

Active Listening

requires	attention, with congruent body language acknowledgment paraphrasing summarizing
allows others	to suggest solutions to be tried to form their own interpretation to draw their own inferences

You should be familiar with the content of Chapters IV and V in *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People,* and design a jigsaw exercise (see directions for the "Generic Jigsaw Exercise" in Appendix 3-C on page 3-265) to introduce the material to the participants. Alternatively, the reading can be assigned beforehand. The boxed information above may be put on newsprint or an overhead for the discussion period.

Chapter IV, "Skills that Help Subordinates Solve Their Problems," should be read as "help new teachers." The basic components of active listening are presented with examples in Chapter IV; you may decide it is sufficient for the training activity. On pages 53-54, a six-stage, problem-solving process is introduced. It is useful as a handout for future reference in all problem-solving activities.

Six-Stage Problem-Solving Process

1. Identify and define the problem.
2. Generate alternative solutions.
3. Evaluate the alternative solutions.
4. Make a decision.
5. Implement the decision.
6. Follow up to evaluate the solution.

Chapter V should be given to all participants, as it encourages the "daily exercise" of listening skills, giving many elaborate examples of day-to-day interactions and how to interpret and deal with them constructively.

Process/Steps:

1. If participants have not had an opportunity to read Chapters IV and V in Gordon's book, distribute the reading and provide instructions for the jigsaw exercise. Use the boxed information that appears in the Trainer's Notes in summary, asking for suggestions, corrections, etc.

2. Choose someone from the group or another trainer, and model a conversation with a child/student, boss, or parent about a troublesome or difficult issue. (Although the conversation should be spontaneous, the person with whom you talk should have foreknowledge of this and be comfortable about doing it.)

3. Allow responses from the group about what they observed.

4. Ask participants to think about a situation they would be willing to discuss with someone and to jot a few notes as they would if they had an appointment with their mentor to discuss this issue. They do not have to pretend to be new teachers. A real, but not too personal, incidence works best, for example, one that involves a child, parent, teacher, or principal (whom no one would know) who is difficult; a recent fender bender; or a baffling, sad, aggravating, or frustrating situation that could benefit from another perspective.

5. Since friends generally counsel differently than objective listeners, ask participants to pair off with someone whom they do not know too well.

6. Ask that each member of the pair assume each role alternately, that of "talker" and "active listener."

   At the end of the first exchange, the "talker" tells the "active listener" what was helpful and what was not. (This should actually guide the second listener.) At the end of the second exchange, the new "talker" tells the "active listener" what was and was not helpful. Together they discuss and make notes about what they learned in the process.

7. Ask participants to share and discuss their experiences.

Time Required: 120 minutes

ACTIVITY 3-24

MORE THAN A GLANCE: SENDING I-MESSAGES

Purpose(s): To learn and practice how to make assertive, nonjudgmental statements that express one's own needs honestly

Materials: Enough copies of Chapter VI from *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People* by Thomas Gordon (New York, NY: Wyden Books, 1977, 92-113) and the handout "Practice Exercise: Sending I-Messages" for each participant, newsprint, easel, markers, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: It is important to note that you can obtain *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People* from your local public or college library. Permission to copy and distribute text from this book must be obtained through a letter of request sent to Random House, Inc., 201 East 50th Street, New York, NY 10022 (212-751-2600).

Occasionally, in interactions with others, someone else's behavior causes a serious problem that must be resolved. One can anticipate that such situations may occur in a mentoring relationship. Sending I-Messages allows you to validate your concerns while being sensitive to others. I-Messages describe the behavior, the feelings aroused, and the effect created by the behavior. Often a potential conflict can be resolved in the initial stages, before it escalates, by using this technique.

You should be familiar with the content of Chapter VI in Gordon's *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People*. In Step 2, make sure that you discuss the three aspects of I-Messages:

- a nonjudgmental description of the *behavior* of the other person;
- the *feeling* or *emotion* you have about the effects of the behavior on you (or the parties involved in the incident); and
- the tangible or concrete *effects* of the other person's behavior.

You may also wish to put these aspects on newsprint. Note that the three parts can be expressed in any order.

In this activity, the situations offered in the practice exercise progress from more general topics to more complex situations that are specific to mentoring. The point of the activity is not to reach a solution to the situation, but to practice sending I-Messages.

Process/Steps:

1. If participants have not had an opportunity to read Chapter VI prior to the session, distribute it and give participants 30 minutes to read it.

2. Lead discussion of the reading, defining I-Messages and their value.

3. Distribute the handout "Practice Exercise: Sending I-Messages." Do Situation 1-a, 1-b, and 1-c with the whole group. Facilitate the discussion and write the various descriptions, feelings, and effects on newsprint.

4. Do Situation 2 with the whole group, leading participants to shorter, one-sentence statements.

5. Ask participants to form small groups of five or six. Ask each group to brainstorm I-Messages for Situation 3.

6. Ask the groups for their best I-Message(s). Jot them down on newsprint so the similarities and differences are apparent.

7. Mentor Situation 4 should be done individually and then shared in the small groups.

8. Discuss with the whole group the process of sending I-Messages, for example, the difficulties and what they might do differently with their newly acquired knowledge of I-Messages.

9. (Optional) Ask participants to share a situation in which they needed to communicate their frustration or anger to a colleague. What did they do?

Time Required: 60-90 minutes without time for reading (plus 30 minutes for reading if needed)

PRACTICE EXERCISE: SENDING I–MESSAGES

Directions: Read each situation. Then, write an I-Message which contains:

- a nonjudgmental description of the *behavior* of the other person;
- the *feeling* or *emotion* you have about the effects of the behavior on you; and
- the tangible or concrete *effects* of the other person's behavior on you.

General Situation (1)

a. You have made three appointments with your dentist for what you consider to be a serious problem. You have arranged to take the necessary time off from work, and each time the dentist's office has canceled on short notice. You call the office to make your feelings clear.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

b. You have made two appointments with your principal to discuss what you consider to be an important issue. Each time, for good reasons, your principal has to cancel. You make an opportunity to speak with the principal about this.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

Source: Adapted with permission of Research for Better Teaching, Carlisle, MA, from training materials by Louise Thompson and Jon Saphier.

c. You have made three appointments with your child's teacher to discuss concerns you consider to be potentially serious. Each time the appointment has been postponed, which is something you would never do. You telephone her.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

General Situation (2)

The mother of one of your students has recently died. The father has been upset and particularly worried about his son and how he is adjusting to the loss of his mother. He calls you two or three times each week at home to discuss his son and talks for an hour each time. This has been going on for two months. Although you are sympathetic to this man and his son, you also value your time at home with your spouse and children. His calls are interfering with that time, and you must speak to him about it.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

Mentor Situation (3)

It is early in your mentoring relationship. Your new teacher has come to school late three times in the last two weeks. Your principal has spoken to him and to you about your responsibility as his mentor to deal with this. You decide to speak to your new teacher.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

Mentor Situation (4)

The new teacher you are mentoring seems to need daily before-class reassurances that her lesson plans for the day are "superior." Furthermore, she would like to debrief every day at the end of school. You are beginning to feel you may have overemphasized your "availability." You have no reflective moments of your own before your students arrive or after they leave. You decide to speak to your new teacher at your next meeting.

Description of Behavior	Feelings	Concrete Effect (The Problem)

ACTIVITY 3-25

THROUGH A TWO-WAY MIRROR: REFLECTING ON DEALING WITH DIFFICULT PEOPLE

Purpose(s): To recognize difficult people in our lives (including how we are difficult people to others) and plot strategies for dealing with them

Materials: Enough copies of the handouts "That Difficult Person," "How Am I a Difficult Person?" "Do You Know These Difficult People?" and "Goals to Set When Dealing with Difficult People" for each participant; overheads entitled "Assumptions about Learning to Deal with Difficult People," "Who Are Difficult People?" "A Look at Difficult People," "Questions to Ask Yourself When Dealing with a Difficult Person," and "William Ury's Five Steps for Getting Past 'No'"; overhead projector and screen; overhead pens; and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: Ideally, this activity requires participants to identify a difficult person in their professional lives. When dealing with staff from the same school, this can be very dangerous. Consider asking those participants to identify difficult people in other parts of their lives or from past experiences.

It is important to emphasize that this may be a real opportunity for thoughtful analysis of self and others. When participants recognize and accept that they may be difficult people for others, this recognition facilitates their understanding of how to work with difficult people in their own lives. Humility through humor is an effective way to make this activity work well. You should be prepared to use yourself as an example first, for example, in Step 6. You may need to be the first volunteer.

It is common to feel uncomfortable about facilitating this activity due to its content, so you may wish to tell how you feel about facilitating this activity. Where are you in your understanding of dealing with difficult people? Are you an expert? A beginner? Being honest here can help create the atmosphere for collaborative learning.

For guides to effective group process, see the following in the Appendices:

- "Guide to Facilitation" on page 3-259;
- "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy" on page 3-269;
- "Approaches to Decision Making" on page 3-273; and
- "The Nominal Group Process" on page 3-277.

Process/Steps:

1. Present the overheads "Assumptions about Learning to Deal with Difficult People" and "Who Are Difficult People?" Allow for questions and discussion, for example, comments on assumptions or the definition of difficult people.

2. Distribute the handout "That Difficult Person" and ask participants to fill out the first two questions according to directions. Explain that they will be collected and redistributed to small groups. If they would like their handout returned with suggested strategies, they should mark it somehow with their identity.

3. Collect the handouts and hold them until later in the activity.

4. Distribute the handout "How Am I a Difficult Person?" and ask participants to answer the questions honestly. Some people may find this hard to do. Then, distribute the handout "Do You Know These Difficult People?" and ask them to identify and label themselves as a difficult person, i.e., choose which category best suits them. Ask participants to turn to a partner and explain a situation in which they were this type of difficult person (two to three minutes per person).

5. Display the overhead "A Look at Difficult People." Explain the four quadrants and the behaviors associated with each quadrant.

6. Ask participants to place each type from the handout "Do You Know These Difficult People?" into the quadrants on the overhead. Write them in with an overhead pen. Connect the descriptions of the types with the appropriate goals for dealing with these difficult people (see "Goals to Set When Dealing with Difficult People"). Allow for and encourage discussion of strategies for dealing with each type of difficult person. A great way to generate discussion is to ask for self-identified volunteers from each difficult-person category to respond to the potential effectiveness of the strategies. Focus on the questions: Has someone dealt well with you when you were this difficult person? What specifically did you do?

7. Ask participants to form groups of three to five and distribute an equal number of completed handouts ("That Difficult Person") to each group. Make sure group members do not receive their own sheets (collected in Step 3).

8. Ask each group to use the information it now has to collectively analyze the descriptions and to answer the last three questions on the bottom of the handout "That Difficult Person."

9. If time permits, have any sheets that have been signed by individuals returned to them. Ask them to evaluate the suggested strategies with the following questions: What do you think? Are they worth a try?

10. Ask participants to analyze the personal context of their situation. Have they gained any insight into their own attitudes and behaviors?

11. Display the last two overheads "Questions to Ask Yourself When Dealing with a Difficult Person" and "William Ury's Five Steps to Getting Past 'No'." Ask participants to comment on how useful this information might be in their role as a mentor.

Time Required: 120 minutes

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THAT DIFFICULT PERSON

1. Select a person in your professional life whom you consider to be difficult. Avoiding names or other clearly identifiable notes, describe the behaviors of this person. Specifically relate a situation in which you have observed these behaviors.

2. Tell how you feel when this person acts this way. Why does this behavior make you feel this way?

3. Can you identify this type of difficult person (using Bramson's nine types)?

4. What is this person's goal?

5. What are some strategies that you could use to deal with this person?

If you would like this returned to you, sign your name. If you prefer to remain anonymous, leave it blank.

____

(*Name*)

HOW AM I A DIFFICULT PERSON?

One helpful precondition for understanding other difficult people is to attempt to understand how we can be difficult people for others. The following questions will help you identify your tendencies. Imagine yourself in a situation where you are at your worst, either at home or at work. Answer the following questions as honestly as possible.

When working with others, do you worry more about **getting the job done or maintaining a good relationship** with the group? If you could only have one outcome, which would it be?

When dealing with others, do you tend to be **more aggressive**, offering your opinions first, or do you tend to be **more passive**, waiting to see what others have to say? Are you intent upon defining the situation to suit your needs or are you more likely to hang back and look for opportunities?

At your most annoying and obnoxious, would those who know you best say that your primary need is:

___ to get things done?
___ for attention and recognition?
___ to get along?
___ to get it right?

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If your goal is primarily CONTROL (the need to get things done), you can become aggressively focused on the task; you may be a RULER. Rulers can display behaviors of the TANK, BULLDOZER, or SNIPER.

If your goal is primarily APPRECIATION (the need for attention or recognition), you can become aggressively focused on people; you may be an ENTERTAINER. Entertainers display behaviors of the SNIPER, BALLOON, or EXPLODER.

If your goal is primarily APPROVAL (the need to get along), you can become too passively focused on others; you may be a RELATER. Relaters manifest the behaviors of the SUPER AGREEABLE, INDECISIVE STALLER, or CLAM.

If your goal is primarily ACCURACY (the need to get it right), you can be too passively focused on the task; you may be an ANALYZER. Analyzers show the behaviors of the WET BLANKET or COMPLAINER.

Looking at the sheet "Do You Know These Difficult People?" are you able to identify yourself?

When I am a difficult person, I am most likely a ______________________________.

DO YOU KNOW THESE DIFFICULT PEOPLE?

It would seem that it is almost human nature to avoid confrontation, yet there are times when each of us must confront others. While teachers who are hostile in meetings, indecisive, vacillating, or over-agreeable are found in almost all schools, there are ways to lessen their impact.

In *Coping With Difficult People: In Business and in Life*, Robert Bramson identifies nine types of difficult people, describes their typical behaviors, and offers specific strategies for coping with them. The following section comes from his book.

SHERMAN TANKS are abusive, abrupt, intimidating, and overwhelming. They are arbitrary and often arrogant in tone. When criticizing something you've said or done, they seem to attack not just the particular behavior, but you, and they do so in an accusing way. They are contemptuous of their victims, considering them to be inferior people who deserve to be bullied and disparaged.

- Stand up for yourself to ensure that you make genuine and solid contact with him or her.
- Give them time to run down. Remain in place, look directly at the yeller, and wait.
- Don't worry about being polite, just jump in. This is a time when cutting people off before they are through is a necessity. If you, in turn, are cut off before you finish your thought, say firmly and loudly, "You interrupted me!" If the Tank doesn't stop, say it again.
- Get their attention, carefully. It often helps to begin coping efforts by clearly and loudly calling the hostile person by name, by rising very deliberately, or by dropping a pencil or book.
- Get them to sit down. Most people behave less aggressively when seated.
- Maintain eye contact.
- Speak from your own point of view. ("In my opinion . . ." "I disagree with you . . .")
- Avoid a head-on fight. Use your strength to stand up to the aggressive person rather than to fight with him or her.

SNIPERS use weapons like innuendos, sotto voce remarks, not-too-subtle digs, nonplayful teasing, and the like.

Source: Reprinted with permission from *Coping With Difficult People: In Business and in Life* by Robert M. Bramson. Copyright (c) 1987 by Doubleday, a division of Bantam Doubleday Dell Publishing Group, Inc.

- Smoke them out. Refuse to be attacked directly. Ask questions like, "That sounded like a dig. Did you mean it that way?" Don't let social convention stop you.
- Provide the Sniper with an alternative to a direct contest. Ask questions rather than accuse.
- Seek group confirmation or denial of the Sniper's criticism. If the Sniper says, "This is the worst-planned meeting I've every had to suffer through," don't reply, "Well, what can we do to improve it?" A better reply would be, "Anyone else see it that way?"
- Do move on to try to solve any legitimate problems that are uncovered.
- Prevent sniping by setting up regular problem-solving meetings.

EXPLODERS throw tantrums, fearsome attacks filled with rage that seems barely under control.

- Give them time to run down and regain self-control on their own.
- If they don't, break into their tantrum state by saying or shouting a neutral phrase such as "Stop!"
- Show that you take them seriously.
- If needed and possible, get a breather and get some privacy with them.

INDECISIVE STALLERS stall major decisions until the decision is made for them. They postpone decisions that might distress someone.

- Make it easy for Stallers to tell you about conflicts or reservations that prevent the decision.
- Listen for indirect words, hesitations, or omissions that may provide clues to problem areas.
- Concentrate on helping the Staller examine facts. Use the facts to help place alternative solutions in priority order. This makes it easier if the Staller has to make a decision that will distress someone.
- Give support after the decision seems to have been made.
- If possible, keep the action steps in your hands.

COMPLAINERS whine and self-righteously blame and accuse. They find fault with everything. Complainers often point out real problems, but they do it in a manner that elicits placating or defensive responses from others.

- Listen attentively to their complaints even if you feel guilty or impatient.
- Acknowledge what they are saying by paraphrasing and checking out your perception of how they feel about it.
- Don't agree with or apologize for their allegations, even if, at the moment, you accept them as true.
- Avoid the accusation-defense-reaccusation pattern.

- State and acknowledge facts without comment.
- Try to move to the problem-solving mode by: asking specific, informational questions; assigning limited fact-finding tasks; asking for the complaints in writing.
- If all else fails, ask the complainer: "How do you want this discussion to end?"

CLAMS respond to every question you might have or every plea for help you make with a yep, a nope, or a grunt.

- Get the Clam to open up.
- Ask open-ended questions.
- Wait as long as you can for a response.
- Do not fill in the silence with your conversation.
- Get agreement on or state clearly how much time is set aside for your "conversation."
- If you get no response, comment on what's happening. End your comment with an open-ended question.
- Deal matter-of-factly with "Can I go now?" and "I don't know" responses.
- If the Clam stays closed: avoid a polite ending; terminate the meeting yourself and set up another appointment; at length, inform the Clam what you must and will do, since a discussion has not occurred.

SUPER-AGREEABLES are always reasonable, sincere, and supportive in your presence but don't produce what they say they will or act contrary to the way they have led you to expect.

- Work hard to surface the underlying facts and issues that prevent the Super-Agreeable from taking action.
- Let them know you value them as people.
- Be ready to compromise and negotiate.

WET BLANKETS are bound to object to any project with "It won't work" or "It's impossible."

- Make optimistic, but realistic, statements about past successes in solving similar problems.
- Don't try to argue Wet Blankets out of their pessimism.
- Do not offer solution-alternatives yourself until the problem has been thoroughly discussed.
- See the doomsayings of the Wet Blanket in perspective as potential problems to be overcome.
- Be ready to take action on your own. Announce your plans to do this without equivocation.

- Be aware of eliciting negative responses from highly analytical people by asking them to act before they are ready.

BULLDOZERS and **BALLOONS** are know-it-all experts who believe that they know everything there is to know about anything worth knowing. They are condescending, imposing (if they really know what they are talking about), or pompous (if they don't), and they can make you feel like an idiot.

- Be thoroughly prepared.
- Listen carefully and paraphrase the main points.
- Use the questioning form to raise problems.
- State correct facts or alternative solutions as descriptively as possible and as your own perceptions of reality.

GOALS TO SET WHEN DEALING WITH DIFFICULT PEOPLE

RULERS:

With **Sherman Tanks,** our goal is to command respect.
With **Bulldozers,** our goal is to open their minds to new ideas.
With **Snipers**, our goal is to bring them out of hiding.

ENTERTAINERS:

With **Balloons**, our goal is to get rid of their bad ideas without alienating them.
With **Exploders**, our goal is to bring them back to their senses.

RELATERS:

With **Super-Agreeables**, our goal is to help them make and keep a commitment.
With **Indecisive Stallers**, our goal is to get them to make and keep a commitment.
With **Clams**, our goal is to get them to talk.

ANALYZERS:

With **Complainers**, our goal is to form a problem-solving alliance.
With **Wet Blankets**, our goal is to maintain our perspective.

Source: Reprinted with permission of Career Track Publications from *How to Deal with Difficult People*, 2 vols., by Rick Brinkman and Rick Kirschner. (c) 1989.

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LEARNING TO DEAL WITH DIFFICULT PEOPLE

- There is no simple, foolproof way to deal with difficult people; human beings are more complex than all the theories of human development.
- Learning to deal with difficult people is an opportunity to learn about ourselves.
- The only person I can change is myself; by changing my behavior, I can change how others deal with me.
- Labeling a behavior as difficult helps us identify and choose strategies; it is not useful for building a long-term relationship.
- Behaviors of difficult people can indicate personality strengths.
- Although conflict is not acceptable in some cultures, change cannot occur without some conflict.
- Difficult people are identified as such because they block us from what we want.

WHO ARE DIFFICULT PEOPLE?

Although their numbers are small, their impact is large. They frustrate and demoralize those unlucky enough to work with them, and they are difficult to understand. Worst of all they appear immune to all the usual methods of communication and persuasion designed to convince them or to help them change their ways. While each of us may occasionally thwart or annoy or confuse one or another of our fellow creatures, a difficult person's troublesome behavior is habitual and affects most of the people with whom he or she comes in contact.

- *Robert Bramson*

Source: Bramson, Op. Cit., 3-217.

A LOOK AT DIFFICULT PEOPLE

TASK

ANALYZER GOAL: Accuracy (the need to get it right)	RULER GOAL: Control (the need to get it done)
PASSIVE	AGGRESSIVE
RELATER GOAL: Approval (the need to get along)	ENTERTAINER GOAL: Appreciation (the need for attention/ recognition)

PEOPLE

Source: Brinkman and Kirschner, Op. Cit., 3-221.

QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF WHEN DEALING WITH A DIFFICULT PERSON

1. What is it worth to me to get involved?
2. Am I clear about my goal?
3. How is this an opportunity for me?
4. How flexible am I willing to be?
5. What's really going on here?
6. Do I think I can make progress here?
7. Am I prepared for setbacks?
8. Others?

WILLIAM URY'S FIVE STEPS FOR GETTING PAST "NO"

1. Don't React

   "Speak when you are angry, and you will make the best speech you will ever regret." - *Ambrose Bierce*

2. Disarm Them

   "One must know how to sail with a contrary wind and to tack until one meets a wind in the right direction." - *Fortune DeFelice*

3. Don't Reject . . . Reframe

   "Craft against vice I will apply." - *William Shakespeare*

4. Build Them a Golden Bridge

   "Build your adversary a golden bridge to retreat across." - *Sun Tau*

5. Make It Hard to Say No

   "The best general is the one who never fights." - *Sun Tau*

Source: Reprinted with permission from *Getting Past No: Negotiating with Difficult People* by William Ury. Copyright (c) 1991 by William Ury. Used by permission of Bantam Books, a division of Bantam Doubleday Publishing Group, Inc.

ACTIVITY 3-26

IN A JAM: HOW TO ADVOCATE FOR A NEW TEACHER

Purpose(s): To explore the role of advocate by practicing how to help new teachers in "sticky" situations

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "'Sticky' Situation Scenarios" for each participant, overhead entitled "The Advocate Role," overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: Participants should have prior experience with one of the activities on conflict resolution, for example, Activity 3-22, "Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution"; Activity 3-24, "More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages"; or Activity 3-25, "Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People."

Many people are uncomfortable with role playing. Reassure participants that the groups will be small, and the point is to explore how a mentor advocates for new teachers. Since role playing can be a difficult activity, it is important to allow participants to choose their own roles. It may be more helpful for participants to suggest their own problem situations to role-play. Depending on your knowledge of the group, you may encourage participants to play a role different from their own.

If participants prefer, they could create their own or "common" sticky situations. Then, they could meet in groups, organized by interest, to discuss a particular situation or pick five of the "hottest" situations and discuss one of them.

If there are groups with more than four members, the additional participants should assume the role of observer.

For guides to effective group process, see the following in the Appendices:

- "Guide to Facilitation" on page 3-259;
- "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy" on page 3-269;
- "Approaches to Decision Making" on page 3-273; and
- "The Nominal Group Process" on page 3-277.

Process/Steps:

1. Explain to the participants that they will each get an opportunity to role-play the mentor in four "sticky" situations in which new teachers may find themselves.

2. Ask participants to form groups of four.

3. Distribute the handout "'Sticky' Situation Scenarios." For Scenario 1, have group members accept a role of each player.

4. Have the observer:

   - keep track of who is doing the talking;
   - look for nonverbal as well as verbal messages;
   - note the techniques used by the mentor;
   - watch for cause-and-effect relationships; and
   - note what the mentor is doing to identify the underlying issue or problem and possible solutions or next steps.

5. Allow two to three minutes for the situation to develop and resolve, if possible.

6. Ask the person in the observer role in each group to share the strategy that the mentor used. List these on newsprint.

7. Have group members exchange roles and repeat the process with Scenarios 2, 3, and 4.

8. To close the exercise, share the overhead "The Advocate Role" and see how each principle was used in the situations. Are there other useful guidelines for mentors?

Time Required: 90 minutes

"STICKY" SITUATION SCENARIOS

Scenario 1: The Cranky Colleague

ROLES:

Mr./Ms. Rookie, the new teacher
Mr./Ms. Nitpik, the cranky colleague
The Observer
The Mentor for Mr./Ms. Rookie

As you, the mentor, turn the corner in the hall, you see your new teacher, Mr./Ms. Rookie being approached by a colleague, Mr./Ms. Nitpick. Word is that the book storage closet is a mess because your new teacher has let students return books there without any supervision. Your colleague was the one who demanded a "teacher only" policy for the storage area last year to prevent this sort of mess. He/she looks angry. The new teacher feels that if the students don't have an opportunity to assume this task, then they may never learn this responsibility. As you approach, their conversation begins.

How can you help? What will you do?

Scenario 2: The Pushy Parent

ROLES:

Mr./Ms. Rookie, the new teacher
Mr./Ms. Wunderkind, the pushy parent
The Observer
The Mentor for Mr./Ms. Rookie

As you, the mentor, pass the door to your new teacher's room after school, you hear part of a frustrated conversation and you pause to hear more. Mr./Ms. Wunderkind, the parent of a very bright child, is castigating your new teacher for using too many cooperative groups, slowing down his/her child, and not providing enough challenging work for this child. Mr./Ms. Rookie tries to justify the situation but is cut off by the irate parent as he/she threatens to go to the principal. He/she brushes past you in the door, leaving in a huff. Your new teacher spots you.

Do you stop the parent? What do you say to your new teacher? How can you help?

Scenario 3: The Stubborn Student

ROLES:

Mr./Ms. Rookie, the new teacher
Steve, the stubborn student
The Observer
The Mentor

While sitting in the cafeteria eating lunch with your new teacher, you see his/her eyes avert, and he/she bolts up and runs to intervene in a fight at a nearby table. You hear Mr./Ms. Rookie charge Steve, a student, with slugging his classmate. Mr./Ms. Rookie is about to march him off to the principal's office. Steve argues vociferously that the other student threw the first punch and that he wasn't going to be the only one punished. Mr./Ms. Rookie argues that she/he can only testify to what she/he saw. Steve makes some crack about a "new, know-it-all teacher." He looks pleadingly at you to intervene.

What will you do? How can you help?

Scenario 4: The Angry Administrator

ROLES:

Mr./Ms. Rookie, the new teacher
Mr./Ms. Arbuckle, the angry administrator
The Observer
The Mentor

Passing by the administrative office, you see your new teacher in an apparently unpleasant discussion with the principal, Mr./Ms. Arbuckle. Mr./Ms. Rookie motions you to join them. The principal does not. You come close enough to hear the principal tell the new teacher that she/he must take the newly enrolled student in her/his class. Mr./Ms. Rookie is hesitating because, as you know, although her/his class is slightly smaller than her/his colleagues' similar classes, she/he has some very difficult students and is already stretched to near the breaking point. Now the principal looks to you for some assistance. You decide to join them.

What will you say? How can you help?

THE ADVOCATE ROLE

- Offer a safe place for the new teacher to vent frustrations.
- Seek to understand the new teacher's perspective. Acceptance does not mean agreement.
- Point out when inappropriate demands are being made on the new teacher.
- Help the new teacher learn new perspectives.
- Help to mediate a resolution to problems.
- Acknowledge the success and accomplishments of the new teacher.
- Ensure that the new teacher has a voice in the life of the school.

ACTIVITY 3-27

RESOLVING POTENTIAL CONFLICTS

Purpose(s): To develop problem-solving and conflict resolution skills

Materials: Role cards containing situations (see "Situations for Role Cards" in this activity), newsprint, easel, and markers

Trainer's Notes: This is designed to generate open, frank discussion among participants and to follow Activity 3-22, "Changing the Game: An Inside View of Conflict Resolution"; Activity 3-23, "Are You Listening?"; Activity 3-24, "More than a Glance: Sending I-Messages"; Activity 3-25, "Through a Two-Way Mirror: Reflecting on Dealing with Difficult People"; and Activity 3-26, "In a Jam: How to Advocate for a New Teacher."

Since role playing can be a difficult activity, it is important to allow participants to choose their own roles. It may be more helpful for participants to suggest their own problem situations to role-play. Depending on your knowledge of the group, you may encourage participants to play a role different from their own.

For guides to effective group process, see the following in the Appendices:

- "Guide to Facilitation" on page 3-259;
- "Promoting Constructive Resolution of Controversy" on page 3-269;
- "Approaches to Decision Making" on page 3-273; and
- "The Nominal Group Process" on page 3-277.

Process/Steps:

1. Introduce the activity as one in which participants will be able to gain a better understanding of the roles of individuals involved in a mentoring program and to develop problem-solving and conflict resolution skills. Present pertinent information on rules of constructive controversy and approaches to decision making (see the Appendices). Ask participants to share their knowledge or experiences regarding both topics.
2. Ask participants to form small groups with different role groups represented (four to six individuals per group).
3. Assign each table a different-colored card representing a different conflict situation.

Source: Adapted with permission of the New York State Education Department from "Situations for Role Cards" by Nancy Brennan, Camille Ferari, and Matthew Giugno.

4. Remind participants that:
   - their goal is to arrive at a resolution to the situation;
   - no judgments will be made about the outcome; and
   - anyone may begin the conversation.
5. Have each group identify an observer.
6. Have each participant select a role card.
7. Have each group read the situation it will be role-playing.
8. Have everyone silently read their role.
9. Then have participants role-play their group's situation.
10. Once a solution is reached, ask participants to reflect upon the process, for example, what techniques were particularly helpful in assisting them to reach a resolution. Record their answers on newsprint.

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

SITUATIONS FOR ROLE CARDS

Directions: You will need to transfer the information offered below to situation role cards. Each person's name and role will be on one side of the card; the situation and the description of the role, responsibilities, and concerns of that individual on the back.

Green set:

Situation: In this school system, mentoring is required for all new teachers, i.e., beginning teachers, teachers new to the system regardless of experience, or teachers new to grade level or content. There is a problem with one of the mentor/teacher pairs. The teacher is new to the district but has 20 years experience in the teaching profession.

- Mr./Ms. O'Flaherty, Project Coordinator

  You are the mentor program coordinator and a former mentor. You are proud to be a part of this very successful mentoring program, which is in its third year. You feel responsible for the well-being of participants in the program. A mentor has recently indicated to you that the new teacher, who was assigned to that mentor, is refusing to engage in the relationship.

- Mr./Ms. Jones, New Teacher

  This is your first year in the district. You have taught for 20 years in another school district, and feel no need for a mentor. You feel that you have created a classroom in which the students are excited about learning.

- Mr./Ms. Brown, Mentor

  You are a mentor in an elementary school and have been assigned to work with a teacher new to the district, yet with 20 years experience in another district. At the first mentor/new teacher meeting, this teacher informed you that she/he appreciated your willingness to help, but she/he did not need any assistance from you. When you explained the school requirement, she/he replied, pleasantly enough, "I will call you when I need your help."

Source: New York State Education Department, Op. Cit., 3-237.

- Mr./Ms. Rodriguez, Principal

  You are a new principal. You support the mentoring program and believe in backing your teachers. You are very concerned about the fact that an experienced teacher, who is new to the district, is not participating in monthly new-teacher, peer-support team meetings. Several mentors have approached you with their concerns. They question this exclusion and its long-term effect. They also know that other new teachers perceive this as unfair, and that many teachers perceive this teacher as not willing to become part of the school community.

Blue set:

Situation: A mentoring program has been implemented in your district for the first time. The mentors and new teachers are finding working together very beneficial. However, they have been upset because the other teachers in the building seem resentful toward them.

- Mr./Ms. Lieberman, Project Coordinator

  You are the coordinator of the mentoring program in your district. You, along with the union president in your district, spearheaded the effort to get the mentoring program. Your perception of the program is that it has been very successful, but reactions from nonparticipants have been negative. It appears to you that they are jealous. You do not want the program or morale of the mentors or new teachers jeopardized.

- Mr./Ms. Mendez, Union President

  You were instrumental in creating initial awareness and interest in the mentoring program in your district. You are proud of your efforts and the program. Your major responsibility and concern, however, is with the job satisfaction and well-being of all teachers in the district. Some teachers have remarked that it seems like mentors and new teachers are special and protected, being able to do such things as attend conferences that others have been unable to attend. You are concerned for the overall morale among the teachers in the district because of this situation.

- Mr./Ms. Roche, Principal

  You are the principal of an elementary school which has a mentoring program for the first time. You had misgivings about the program, particularly about how instruction would be affected by teachers leaving their classrooms for a portion of time. You are finding, however, that mentors and new teachers are very enthusiastic. Through some intervention on your part, parents' fears about substitutes have been allayed, and instruction proceeds with very little interruption. Because you have sensed tensions and discontent among some faculty members, you wish to discuss this with others involved in the program.

- Mr./Ms. Smith, Mentor

  You are a mentor in an elementary school. Your work with your new teachers is challenging, rewarding, and fun. You have noticed, however, that some of your colleagues have made remarks about your ability to be released from class a good portion of the time and have even remarked that you cannot sustain good learning skills for your students.

White set:

Situation: There seems to be a problem between the new teacher and the mentor that has festered for a few months. The new teacher has requested, through the project coordinator, to withdraw from the mentoring program.

- Mr./Ms. Lancaster, New Teacher

  You are a somewhat intimidated first-year teacher. You were required to participate in the mentoring program by the principal. You were willing to be involved but have never become comfortable working with Mr./Ms. Chang, your mentor. You feel you can never become the kind of teacher your mentor models and expects you to be. You are losing confidence and feel that you need time to develop your own style. You have requested this meeting in order to withdraw from the program. You are not sure how this meeting will affect your future with the school district.

- Mr./Ms. Douglas, Project Coordinator

  You are the project coordinator for a small mentoring program. This is your first year. You are a little uncomfortable about the situation, but you want to work out the problems in order to salvage the mentoring relationship. You have initiated the meeting at the request of the new teacher.

- Mr./Ms. Chang, Mentor

  You have been teaching secondary science for 13 years in the district. You consider yourself an able teacher and a good mentor. You believe that you have a lot to offer any first-year teacher, especially since you know so much about the subject area. You are not unwilling to share your expertise, and are baffled by the new teacher's unwillingness to use your skills.

RESOURCES ON PREPARING MENTOR TEACHERS

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING – Selected Resources

Banks, James A. and Banks, Cherry A. McGee, eds. 1989. *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

> Cultural diversity, exceptionality, and school reform are the subjects of this volume, which includes substantive discussion of race, social class, religion, gender, ethnicity, language, and mental ability testing. The book takes a hard look at the interrelationships both in and outside the school that influence student behavior and thus inhibit or contribute to academic achievement.

Bennett, Christine I. 1990. *Comprehensive Multicultural Education: Theory and Practice*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

> This book makes a case for multicultural education as the way to address individual differences that affect teaching and learning in today's world.

Tiedt, Pamela L. and Tiedt, Iris M. 1990. *Multicultural Teaching: A Handbook of Activities and Resources*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

> The content covers a comprehensive array of topics and issues associated with multicultural education. It establishes a strong rationale based on historical and sociological data that connects multicultural concepts to identity and self-esteem, good interpersonal relations, stereotypes and expectations, and living in a global village.

Young, John. 1982. *Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook*. Cambridge, MA: Lesley College.

> The Asian and the Asian-American learner; bilingual program designs, methodology and classroom activities; instructional materials for Asian education programs; and teacher competencies, staff development, and certification are among the topics covered in this resource.

Zanger, Virginia V. 1985. *Face to Face: The Cross-Cultural Workbook*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

> This book provides the teacher with a good repertoire of activities around cultural issues. Each chapter focuses on a topic such as attitudes toward time, nonverbal communication, and male/female roles in different cultures with hands-on activities that can be used in the classroom or adapted to training situations.

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING – Other Resources

Abramowitz, Christine and Dokecki, Paul R. May 1977. "The Politics of Clinical Judgment: Early Empirical Returns." *Psychological Bulletin* 84 (3): 469-479.

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING -- Other Resources (continued)

Alphonso, R. J. and Goldsberry, L. 1982. "Colleagueship in Supervision." In *Supervision of Teaching*, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Avery, Maria-Paz Beltran. February 1992. "Reflections on the Intercultural Encounter." *Women's Education Equity Act Publishing Center Digest*. Newton, MA: Education Development Center, Inc.

Barnett, Bruce G. 1985. "Peer-Assisted Leadership: Using Research to Improve Practice." *Urban Review* 17 (1): 47-64.

Beane, James and Lipka, Richard P. 1986. *Self-Concept, Self-Esteem, and the Curriculum*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Bennett, Barrie; Rolheiser-Bennett, Carol; and Stevahn, Laurie. 1991. *Cooperative Learning: Where Heart Meets Mind*. Toronto: Educational Connections.

Boles, Katherine and Troen, Vivian. February 1992. "How Teachers Make Restructuring Happen." *Educational Leadership* 49 (5): 53-56.

Comer, James P. November 1988. "Educating Poor Minority Children." *Scientific American* 259 (5): 42-48.

Erickson, Frederick. 1975. "Gatekeeping and the Melting Pot." *Harvard Educational Review* 45 (1): 44-70, 75.

Feiman-Nemser, Sharon. 1992. *Mentoring in Context: A Comparison of Two U.S. Programs for Beginning Teachers*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

Fullan, Michael G. 1990. "Staff Development, Innovation, and Institutional Development." In *Changing School Culture Through Staff Development*, The 1990 ASCD Yearbook, edited by Bruce Joyce. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Gay, Geneva. 1989. "Ethnic Minorities and Educational Equality." In *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*, edited by James A. Banks and Cherry A. Banks. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Glickman, Carl D. 1981. *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Goldhammer, Robert; Anderson, R. H.; and Krajewski, Robert J. 1980. *Clinical Supervision: Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers*, 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Gordon, Thomas. 1977. *Leader Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Way to Release the Productive Potential of People*. New York: Wyden Books.

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING – Other Resources (continued)

Haberman, Martin and Post, Linda. Fall 1990. "Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of the Goals of Multicultural Education." *Action in Teacher Education* 12 (3): 31-35.

Hall, Edward T. 1959. *The Silent Language*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Harvey, Glen. March 1986. "Finding Reality Among the Myths: Why What You Thought About Sex Equity in Education Isn't So." *Phi Delta Kappan* 67 (7): 509-511.

Hodgkinson, Harold L. 1989. *The Same Client: The Demographics of Education and Service Delivery Systems*. Washington, DC: The Institute for Educational Leadership.

Joyce, Bruce and Showers, Beverly. October 1982. "The Coaching of Teaching." *Educational Leadership* 40 (1): 4-10.

Knapp, Michael S. and Shields, Patrick M. June 1990. "Reconceiving Academic Instruction for the Children of Poverty." *Phi Delta Kappan* 71 (10): 753-758.

Knight, Cheryl S. and Knight, J. Pat. 1991. "Rebuilding a Positive Self-Image for Mentor Teachers." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 340 698).

Lindsey, Alfred. July-August 1985. "Consensus or Diversity? A Grade Dilemma in Schooling." *Journal of Teacher Education* 36 (4): 31-36.

Little, Judith Warren. 1984. "Professional Development Roles and Relationships: Principles and Skills of 'Advising'." San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

____________________. 1990. "The Mentor Phenomenon and the Social Organization of Teaching." In *Review of Research in Education*, edited by Courtney B. Cazden. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Little, Judith Warren and Nelson, Linda, eds. 1990. *A Leader's Guide to Mentor Training*. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management and San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Montero-Sieburth, Maria and Perez, Marla. September 1987. "Echar Pa'Lante: Moving Onward: The Dilemmas and Strategies of a Bilingual Teacher." *Anthropology and Education Quarterly* 18 (3): 180-189.

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Noddings, Nel. December-January 1992. "The Gender Issue." *Educational Leadership* 49 (4): 65-70.

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RELATIONSHIP BUILDING – Other Resources (continued)

Ogbu, John. December 1987. "Variability in Minority School Performance: A Problem in Search of an Explanation." *Anthropology and Education Quarterly* 18 (6): 312-334.

Ohio Department of Education. 1990. *Assisting the Entry-Year Teacher: A Leadership Resource*. Columbus, OH: Ohio Department of Education.

Oregon Department of Education. 1990. *Promoting Collaboration and Collegiality: A Handbook for Mentors in the Oregon Beginning Teacher Support Program*. Salem, OR: Oregon Department of Education.

Pedersen, Anne B. and Pedersen, Paul B. 1985. "The Cultural Grid: A Personal and Cultural Grid: A Personal and Cultural Orientation." In *Intercultural Communication: A Reader*, 4th ed., edited by Larry A. Samova and Richard E. Porter. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.

Pedersen, Paul. 1988. *A Handbook for Developing Multicultural Awareness*. Alexandria, VA: American Association for Counseling and Development.

Saphier, Jon and Gower, Robert. 1987. *The Skillful Teacher: Building Your Teaching Skills*. Carlisle, MA: Research for Better Teaching.

Saxl, Ellen R. with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. 1989. *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

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Sparks, Georgia Mohlman. Summer 1986. "The Effectiveness of Alternative Training Activities in Changing Teaching Practices." *American Educational Research Journal* 23 (2): 217-225.

Tetreault, Mary Kay Thompson. Autumn 1986. "The Journey from Male-Defined to Gender-Balanced Education." *Theory Into Practice* 25 (4): 227-234.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND BEYOND – Selected Resources

Berliner, David C. 1987. "Simple Views of Effective Teaching and a Simple Theory of Classroom Instruction." In *Talks to Teachers*, edited by David C. Berliner and Barak V. Rosenshine. New York: Random House.

> This chapter presents an intriguing distinction contrasting good teaching with effective teaching. The author further delineates, in light of his definition of effective teaching, cautions regarding judging teacher effectiveness, and exhorts evaluators of classroom instruction to take a wider view of the nature of teacher effectiveness. Observable elements of the effective classroom are noted and discussed, as well as allocated time, engaged time, academic learning time, and quality instruction. Some research studies are covered.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND BEYOND – Selected Resources (continued)

Evertson, Carolyn. February 1986. "Do Teachers Make a Difference? Issues for the Eighties." *Education and Urban Society* 18 (2): 195-210.

> In this journal article, the author presents a thorough and very readable review of research regarding the relationship of teaching practice and learning outcomes. Areas such as quantity and quality of instruction, classroom management and organization, instructional strategies, and teacher expectations are discussed. In addition, various supports for teachers are described and discussed, including teacher preparation programs and their effectiveness. The role of evaluation of teacher performance, use of research by teachers, and issues of teacher empowerment are explored. The author leaves the reader with a series of questions for reflection regarding effective teaching.

Glickman, Carl D. April 1987. "Good and/or Effective Schools: What Do We Want?" *Phi Delta Kappan* 68 (8): 622-624.

> In this journal article, the author challenges our notions of effective and/or good schools and classrooms and presents distinctions between the two concepts. It is suggested that quality schools value effectiveness in the context of the "goodness" of the school. Definitions and ramifications of both are described, as well as thought-provoking questions for educators regarding the most desirable school qualities.

Good, Thomas L. and Brophy, Jere E. 1991. *Looking in Classrooms*. New York: Harper Collins.

> This volume contains extensive and detailed information about classroom life. Educational research is summarized and presented concisely by topic. Topics include, but are not limited to, classroom observations, teacher attitudes and behaviors, classroom management, discipline, instructional theory and strategies (for example, mastery learning, individualized instruction, open education), grouping, and concepts and methods for improving teaching. The authors also present activities, questions for discussion and reflection, and an extensive list of references for further study.

Hunter, Madeline C. 1982. *Mastery Teaching*. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.

> This book provides a comprehensive presentation of the author's theories and rationale for what constitutes mastery teaching. These "principles of learning" fall into the topics of increasing motivation, getting students ready to learn, effective presentation of information, modeling, making material meaningful, checking students' understanding, designing effective practice, and guiding initial practice.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND BEYOND – Selected Resources (continued)

Kounin, Jacob S. 1970. *Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc.

> The author reports results of research conducted in the area of classroom management and shares concepts of classroom discipline derived from this work. Some topics covered include teachers' desist styles and relationship to behavior management, concepts of "with-it-ness" and "overlapping," teacher skills which correlate with behavior management in classrooms, skillful startup and transition actions by teachers, maintaining group focus, and student accountability as expected and communicated by the skillful teacher. The author also includes an extensive discussion of his research of the "ripple" effect, i.e., the effect of a reprimand to one individual on other students in the group.

Sykes, Gary. November 1988. "Inspired Teaching: The Missing Element in Effective Schools." *Educational Administration Quarterly* 24 (4): 461-469.

> The author proffers a series of challenges regarding effective schools, including the most common and urgent impediments to effective schools such as sufficient learning time, order in classrooms, relevant and "meaty" curricula, high expectations for all students, and the development of a critical eye on teaching pedagogy and skills in our classrooms. Several thought-provoking issues are raised, including the social implications of teaching strategies, the complexity of teaching, the need for balance between rigorous teaching standards and certain classroom practices for their intrinsic value regardless of learning outcomes, an atmosphere of exploration of teaching practices in our schools, the importance of professional research in teaching, and the need to keep risk-taking in our teaching.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND BEYOND – Other Resources

Bain, Helen; Lintz, Nan; and Ward, Elizabeth. March 1989. "A Study of Fifty Effective Teachers Whose Class Average Gain Scores Ranked in the Top 15% of Each of Four School Types in Project STAR." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 307 246).

Boles, Katherine and Troen, Vivian. February 1992. "How Teachers Make Restructuring Happen." *Educational Leadership* 49 (5): 53-56.

Callahan, J. and Clark, L. 1983. *Foundations of Education*, 2nd ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Carr, Wilfred and Kemmis, Stephen. 1986. Quoted selections from: *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research*. Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.

Dill, David D., ed. 1990. *What Teachers Need to Know: The Knowledge, Skills, and Values Essential to Good Teaching*, 1st ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; and Anderson, Linda M. 1980. "Effective Classroom Management at the Beginning of the School Year." *Elementary School Journal* 80 (5): 219-231.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND BEYOND – Other Resources (continued)

Evertson, Carolyn M. and Weade, Regina. January 1989. "Classroom Management and Teaching Style: Instructional Stability and Variability in Two Junior High English Classrooms." *Elementary School Journal* 89 (3): 379-393.

Fullan, Michael G. 1990. "Staff Development, Innovation, and Institutional Development." In *Changing School Culture Through Staff Development, The 1990 ASCD Yearbook*, edited by Bruce Joyce. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Grouke, J.; Ovens, P.; and Hargreaves, M. 1986. "Toward a More Open Classroom." In *Action Research in Classrooms and Schools*, edited by D. Hustler, T. Cassidy, and T. Cuff. London: Allen and Unwin.

Lasley, Thomas; Lasley, Janet O.; and Ward, Susan Howard. 1989. "Activities and Desists Used by More- and Less-Effective Classroom Managers." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 315 162)

Oja, Sharon Nodie and Smulyan, Lisa. 1989. *Collaborative Action Research: A Developmental Approach*. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.

Perry-Sheldon, Barbara and Allain, Violet Anselmini. 1987. *Using Educational Research in the Classroom*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Pine, Gerald J. 1981. "Collaborative Action Research: The Integration of Research and Service." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Detroit, MI.

Saphier, Jon and Gower, Robert. 1987. *The Skillful Teacher: Building Your Teaching Skills*. Carlisle, MA: Research for Better Teaching.

Strother, Deborah B. June 1985. "Practical Applications in Research: Classroom Management." *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (10): 725-728.

Woods, Patricia. April 1988. "Action Research: A Field Perspective." A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 295 938).

Yager, Robert E. and Bonnstetter, Ronald J. 1990. "The Practices of Teachers Who Develop Exemplary Science Programs." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 328 416).

Zuber-Skerritt, Ortrun, ed. 1991. *Action Research for Change and Development*. Hants, England and Brookfield, VT: Gower Publishing Company.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Selected Resources

Acheson, Keith A. and D'Arcangelo, Marcia. 1987. *Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation, Trainer's Manual.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

> Several teacher observation techniques and tools are provided in this trainer's manual. Within each section is an overview of when each technique is most appropriate to use. When this text is used in conjunction with the videotapes entitled *Another Set of Eyes: Techniques in Classroom Observation*, teachers are provided with a model and the opportunity for personal experience in working with these techniques.

Belenky, Mary Field; Clinchy, Blythe McVicker; Goldberger, Nancy Rule; and Tarule, Jill Mattuck. 1986. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice, and Mind.* New York: Basic Books.

> The distinction between separate and connected knowing, discussed in Chapter 6, and the discussion on connected teaching provided in Chapter 10 form a close relationship with the premise of instructional leadership explained in Chapter 3 of this guidebook. The concepts explored in *Women's Ways of Knowing* create a framework to consider when responding to the ever-changing requirements of school leadership.

Costa, Art; Garmston, Robert; Zimmerman, Diane; and D'Arcangelo, Marcia. 1988. *Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills, Trainer's Manual.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

> The skills necessary for effective conferencing are explained and opportunities for practice are provided. Questioning, listening, paraphrasing, and probing for specificity are among the techniques discussed here. It can be helpful to use this manual in concert with the videotapes entitled *Another Set of Eyes: Conference Skills.*

Duke, Daniel L. 1987. *School Leadership and Instructional Improvement.* New York: Random House.

> Several issues around leadership, instruction, and school improvement are presented here. In Chapter 4, the author conveys "A Vision of Instructional Leadership" that specifically relates to school administrators when he talks about the relationship between school leadership and school effectiveness.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Selected Resources (continued)

Feiman-Nemser, Sharon. 1992. *Helping Novices Learn to Teach: Lessons from an Experienced Support Teacher*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. 343 887)

> This study indicates that thoughtful support and guidance from an experienced teacher can not only help novice teachers survive their first year of teaching, but it can also lay the foundation for continued learning. It documents the thinking and actions of an exceptional mentor teacher who conceives of his role as a "co-thinker" helping novices to "see new perspectives, new ways to solve problems they have." The paper sets out specific strategies that this support teacher uses in his work with novices. Each strategy is accompanied by a rationale based on teachers' actual practices.

Glickman, Carl. 1985. *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

> This book moves beyond a clinical approach to teacher observation and conferencing, toward a developmental approach. Leadership style and supervisor behavior are presented as they relate to the developmental needs of teachers. In Chapter 4, adult development is discussed from both phase and stage theoretical perspectives.

Oja, Sharon Nodie and Smulyan, Lisa. 1989. *Collaborative Action Research: A Developmental Approach*. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.

> Collaborative Action Research is presented from both a historical and contextual perspective and discussed as it relates to the developmental needs of adults working within schools. It is offered as one way to trigger adult growth. Case studies are provided which articulate teachers' own perceptions of the personal value of participating in a collaborative action research project.

Saphier, Jon and Gower, Robert. 1987. *The Skillful Teacher: Building Your Teaching Skills*. Carlisle, MA: Research for Better Teaching.

> The authors have created a teaching framework that identifies specific components of excellent teaching practice. These components relate to the management, curricular, and instructional aspects of the teaching/learning process. This text is helpful for all teachers, particularly those who are just entering the teaching profession.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Other Resources

Acheson, Keith and Gall, Meredith. 1987. *Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers*. New York: Longman, Inc.

Carr, John. 1991. Presentation to the New Hampshire Mentor Teacher Pilot Projects on May 28, 1991 in Bedford, NH.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Other Resources (continued)

Garman, Noreen B. 1990. "Theories Embedded in the Events of Clinical Supervision: A Hermeneutical Approach." *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 5 (3): 201-213.

Gilligan, Carol. 1982. *In a Different Voice*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Glickman, Carl. 1992. "Introduction: Postmodernism and Supervision." In *Supervision in Transition, The 1992 ASCD Yearbook*, edited by Carl Glickman. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

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Gordon, Thomas. 1977. *Leadership Effectiveness Training*. New York: Wyden Books.

Grimmet, Peter P.; Rostad, Olaf P.; and Ford, Blake. 1992. "The Transformation of Supervision." In *Supervision in Transition*, edited by Carl Glickman. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Haley, Mary Ann. 1992. Materials prepared for a presentation to the New Hampshire Mentor Teacher Pilot Projects on May 18, 1992, in Concord, NH.

Hunt, David E. 1987. *Beginning with Ourselves in Practice, Theory, and Human Affairs*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.

Hunter, Madeline C. 1982. *Mastery Teaching*. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.

Joyce, Bruce, ed. 1990. *Changing School Culture Through Staff Development, 1990 ASCD Yearbook*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Little, Judith Warren. March 1989. "The Persistence of Privacy: Autonomy and Initiative in Teachers' Professional Relations." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in San Francisco.

Little, Judith Warren and Nelson, Linda, eds. 1990. *Mentor Teacher: A Leader's Guide to Mentor Training*. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management and San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Noddings, Nel. 1984. *Caring: A Feminine Approach to Ethics and Moral Education*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Nolan, James and Francis, Pam. 1992. "Changing Perspectives in Curriculum and Instruction." In *Supervision in Transition, The 1992 ASCD Yearbook*, edited by Carl Glickman. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Orlich, Donald C. 1989. *Staff Development: Enhancing Human Potential*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Other Resources (continued)

Smyth, J. March 1989. "Problematizing Teaching Through a 'Critical' Perspective on Clinical Supervision." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Style, Emily. 1988. "Curriculum as Window and Mirror." In *Listening for All Voices*. Summit, NJ: Oak Knoll School.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP – Audiovisual Resources

"Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills" -- includes three videotapes and a trainer's manual

Available from: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
Order Processing
1250 North Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314-1453
(703) 549-9110

"Another Set of Eyes: Techniques for Classroom Observation" -- includes two videotapes and a trainer's manual

Available from: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
Order Processing
1250 North Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314-1453
(703) 549-9110

"Mentor Training" by Norman A. Sprinthall and Lois Thies-Sprinthall.

This tape provides examples of a pre- and post-observation conference as well as an opportunity to observe a third grade mathematics classroom. The conferencing examples illustrate the techniques of clarifying, paraphrasing, checking for understanding, probing, and synthesizing, all of which are necessary if a mentor, as coach, is actively listening and effectively coaching.

Available from: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement
of the Northeast and Islands
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
(800) 347-4200
Attention: Northeast Common Market Project

CONFLICT: A TRIGGER FOR GROWTH – Selected Resources

Fisher, Roger; Ury, William; and Patton, Bruce. 1991. *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In*, 2nd ed. New York: Penguin Group.

> This text provides explicit strategies to consider in conflict resolution and negotiation. The information presented here is readily applicable and provides a solid beginning in expanding one's repertoire in resolving conflict.

Ury, William. 1991. *Getting Past No: Negotiating with Difficult People*. New York: Bantam Books.

> This presents an overview of several behavior types that can be difficult to deal with especially in conflict resolution and negotiation. Particular strategies are presented as best ways of responding to the different behavior types.

CONFLICT: A TRIGGER FOR GROWTH – Other Resources

Bramson, Robert. 1988. *Coping with Difficult People: In Business and in Life*. New York: Dell.

Fisher, Roger and Brown, Scott. 1988. *Getting Together: Building a Relationship that Gets to Yes*. New York: Houghton Mifflin.

CONFLICT: A TRIGGER FOR GROWTH – Audiovisual Resources

Brinkman, Rick and Kirschner, Rick. 1989. *How to Deal with Difficult People, 2 vols*. Boulder, CO: Career Track Publications.

CONFLICT: A TRIGGER FOR GROWTH – Self-Assessment Tools

Thomas, Kenneth W. and Kilmann, Ralph H. 1992. *Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument*. Tuxedo, NY: XICOM, Inc.

> This self-assessment tool provides individuals with feedback about their preferred style of dealing with conflict. Five styles are described along two converging axes: cooperation and assertiveness.

Available from: XICOM, Inc.
Woods Road, RR 2
Tuxedo, NY 10987
(800) 759-4266

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 3-A

HOW TO MAKE AN ACTIVITY YOUR OWN: A WORKING CHECKLIST

In order to make the best use of an activity, you need to "make it your own," detailing how it will actually be carried out. An activity may also have to be adapted to particular training situations and to participants' needs. This checklist provides a set of simple steps for proceeding.

1. Read through the activity to be sure you understand how it works.
2. Consider the audience with whom you will be using the activity. What are its probable needs?
3. Decide upon what you are trying to accomplish (your main goals or purposes) with the activity.
4. *Write down* your goals. If working with others, use newsprint or other large-display formats to build the design and guide your work as you go.
5. Begin walking through the steps in the activity. For each step, ask the four questions below. As you proceed, write down what you decide.
    - Shall I keep this or drop it?
    - Shall I revise this? How?
    - Should steps be in a different sequence (for example, conceptual material early rather than late)?
    - Are there "option points" at which I might do something differently depending on how a step goes?
6. Set the amount of time each step will take.
7. REVIEW: Walk through the flow of revised steps. Think of how a participant will feel and react. Does the flow work well or does it need adjustment?
8. Decide who will run each step.
9. Decide what preparation is needed (conceptual inputs, directions for steps, handouts, overheads, newsprint, room setup, etc.) and who will do it.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Assisting Change in Education (ACE): A Training Program for School Improvement Facilitators, Trainers' Manual* by Ellen R. Saxl with Matthew B. Miles and Ann Lieberman. (c) 1989, I-18.

APPENDIX 3-B

GUIDE TO FACILITATION

Facilitation is highly complex and particularly significant in the teaching/learning process. When assuming the role of facilitator, there are particular structures, strategies, and dispositions that can contribute to your success. This guide to facilitation will highlight several aspects to consider as you prepare, execute, and evaluate your sessions.

Preparing Your Session

1. Be prepared and know your audience. Ask planners to respond to the statement "This session we are preparing will be valuable if . . . ." By probing planners in this way, you are better able to prepare for what they are intending as learner outcomes for the participants.
2. Establish "ground rules" for group behavior:
    - suspend judgment;
    - think together; and
    - share air time.
3. Review particular instructions necessary for participants to fully understand what is expected.
4. Know your content and be clear about your process.
5. Identify the nature of the facilitator role for the activity you are doing. Some helpful questions to ask are:
    - Is this a brainstorming activity in which it is more important for you to manage the group than to bring your content knowledge?
    - Is this an activity in which your content knowledge is essential in guiding discussion?
6. Consider having advanced organizers, for example, an agenda for the day, process steps, an overview of the activities of the day, and review materials packet to be used.
7. Have materials prepared in advance -- use large font for overheads, preferably six to eight lines of text per overhead.
8. Prepare name tags or ask participants to fill out their own. Ask that first names be printed legibly and in large print.

Qualities of Effective Facilitation

READING THE GROUP accurately is a skill that can significantly enhance the rapport between you and your participants. Anticipating basic needs is a first step in this process. For example, plan for breaks if your session is lengthy and provide food, comfortable chairs, adequate lighting, and a comfortable room temperature. Be prepared to address a variety of learning styles. Allow participants adequate wait time. It will often take participants five seconds or more to process the question, or synthesize the ideas on the table, before they are ready to respond. This extra

gift of "thinking time" is an effective strategy in soliciting optimal group involvement. Be familiar with group dynamics. For example, the four stages of group development are forming, norming, storming, and performing. Be aware of "group think," an excessive tendency to maintain "group cohesiveness" at the cost of critical thinking and risk taking. Remember the significance of silence as a voice of the group. In cases in which silence is spoken loudly, you may want to ask the question, "Does anyone have any thought, question, or concern they would like to put on the table at this point?"

CLARIFYING what someone has said is helpful to ensure common understanding and decrease the possibility of unnecessary conflict. Paraphrasing or checking for accuracy can help participants clarify their intentions and let them know that you hear them accurately.

PROBING for specificity is a skill that facilitators can employ to help move individuals, or groups, from a position of "feeling stuck" to one of new understanding or enlightenment. By asking certain kinds of questions, a facilitator can coach a reflective process that often invites discovery and clarity. Examples of this type of question would include:

- What would that look like?
- How is what you've just said different from this other idea?
- Could you expand that further?

DEPERSONALIZING CONFLICT is a requirement of impartial facilitation. When working with diverse groups, the personality, tone, or learning style needs of participants may cloud your perceptions and attitudes as the facilitator. It is essential that you focus on the problem, not the person, when responding to difficult issues regarding facilitating groups. At the same time, it is often necessary to give difficult feedback. For instance, if group behaviors like blocking, sabotaging, excessive humor, or monopolizing are occurring, you may need to step into the role of process observer and provide the group with specific data that identifies the unproductive behavior. If you are "stepping out" of your facilitator role for any reason, it is important to announce what it is you are doing and why, i.e., you may shift to a process observer role to provide the group with needed feedback. In any case, always attempt to remove your own ego from the conflict. As facilitator, you need to remain impartial in resolving controversy. Chapter 3 discusses conflict resolution in greater detail and recommends several resources on the topic.

BRACKETING is a technique that allows questions, comments, and ideas to be validated, while at the same time, allows the group to move forward. For example, if an issue is raised that is important to the group, yet unrelated to their present task, you could record the issue or topic on newsprint, place it within brackets [ ], and indicate that this is an important issue the group may have to return to at a later time. It is also important to include bracketed information in the minutes. This technique provides you with one way to keep a group on task, while inviting a disposition for critical inquiry.

VALUING each person's contributions will enhance group development by giving personal meaning to each member's participation. There are several ways you may do this, for example:

- Give a person positive feedback for a comment, for example, "That's a really good suggestion."
- Bring back into the conversation a comment made previously that would otherwise be overlooked. It is also helpful if, in doing so, you are able to make connections to the current conversation.

- Provide a visual focus point for the meeting's progress. Newsprint is a wonderful facilitation tool in this regard. Not only will it allow participants to see what they've talked about, but it is also a good way to review decisions that have already been made.
- Check with participants to make sure that what you record on newsprint accurately reflects what they said. Try to use the exact language or phrases used by participants as much as possible.

Tools of Facilitation

It is a good idea to have a "kit of tools" prepared and take them with you whenever you facilitate. Regardless of what others have agreed to prepare for you, Murphy's Law often rings true when it comes to having exactly what you need as you begin to facilitate your session. Helpful tools to include in your facilitator kit are:

A variety of colored markers
Overhead pens
Masking tape
Timer (for example, stopwatch)
Pushpins
Paper clips
Name tags
Rubber bands
Post-it notes
Blank overheads
Business cards
Copies of your favorite anecdotes, stories, and jokes

Optional tools:

Portable easel
Audiotape recorder

A Framework for Effective Meetings

- Have an agenda or "build one" at the beginning of the session.
- Record highlights, decisions, "report out" information, and bracketed information on newsprint and use this information to create a set of minutes of the session.
- Provide a copy of the minutes to each participant.
- Be prepared to change your facilitator role to one of process observer if feedback is needed regarding group behavior.
- Provide participants with an opportunity to give you feedback about their experience during the session.

Evaluating Your Session

There are several methods for assessing how effective, meaningful, and valuable your session was for participants. Chapter 4 provides a more detailed review of methodologies; however, the following examples may also be helpful in selecting a method of assessment that is appropriate for your needs.

Likert-Type Scale

This method of assessment provides a numerical evaluation of your session. Typically you would ask participants to rate your session around several areas on a scale of one to five. The following provides an example:

Today's session was:

Not Productive **Very Productive**

1 2 3 4 5

Not Informative **Very Informative**

1 2 3 4 5

Not Well Organized **Very Organized**

1 2 3 4 5

Open-Ended Assessment

This method of assessment provides for a more continual assessment strategy. It is especially useful if you are working with a particular group over time, since the responses can help inform what a particular group of learners will need next and will provide you with feedback about whether or not their expectations were met. One method is to use an 8.5" x 11" sheet of paper and label the top of each of four quadrants with the following open-ended statements:

I came expecting . . . **I got . . .**

I value . . . **Next I need . . .**

Journal Entries

Once again, if you are working with a group over time, excerpts from individual journal entries which speak to individual appraisal around the use of an innovation, perceptions, or attitudes can be extremely helpful in accurately identifying the concerns of a given group of learners. In doing so, you are better able to prepare for any subsequent sessions. If you are considering using this method, make it clear to participants that this will occur and agree ahead of time how the journals will be used (or not used) and who will be reading them. Trust can prove to be a major issue in the effective use of this method.

Assessment and Celebration

As a culminating activity, especially after working with a particular group over several sessions, a large-group "free expression" can provide feedback while also creating a community celebration. First, roll out a long strip of paper from a newsprint roll (you can usually get these from local newspapers). The length of the sheet should allow for adequate space for all participants to express themselves. Scatter assorted colored markers along the sheet on the floor. Ask participants to respond to the question, "How meaningful/valuable has this experience been for me?" Participants may choose to express themselves in writing or with some other creative art form. After they have completed the task, display the length of newsprint in a common area, i.e., a school or classroom, as it offers a reminder of the celebration.

Quick Feedback

Many activities require participants to read new materials, participate in a new process, or experience a different workshop structure. If you find it necessary, or interesting, to gain quick feedback, there are two methods that can provide you with quick access to participant perceptions. Immediately following the activity in question, ask participants to give you a thumbs-up if they thought the activity was very good, interesting, or helpful; a thumbs-down if it was not good, not interesting, or not helpful; and a thumbs-parallel if they were middle of the road about the activity. When doing a jigsaw activity in which participants are reading a variety of articles and readings, this method can provide you with helpful feedback about the relevance of the material selected. A second method is to ask participants to record on 3" x 5" cards one recommendation and one commendation. This method works best if you use one color card for recommendations and another color for commendations.

Parting Thoughts

- Be prepared.
- Know your audience.
- Demonstrate a sense of humor -- have fun.
- Use appropriate tone of voice and body language. Fifty-five percent of your message depends on body language, thirty-eight percent on tone of voice, and seven percent on the words you choose.
- Celebrate the "ah-has."
- Embrace participants' ideas and interests.
- Remember the ground rules and be ready to shift into other roles as needed by the group.

APPENDIX 3-C

GENERIC JIGSAW EXERCISE

Purpose(s): To acquaint participants with the jigsaw activity

Materials: Articles, books, etc. -- varied according to content of training topic, overhead entitled "Jigsaw Exercise," overhead projector and screen, newsprint, easels, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity provides a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about the topic that has been selected. It extends knowledge and stimulates good collegial thinking and discussion. This experiential learning activity draws on the knowledge participants bring to the activity, promotes shared responsibility for learning, provides new feelings of expertise, and shifts the status of expert from trainer to learner.

A range of readings should be selected, the criteria of which should include:

- diversity of findings and points of view;
- understandable language;
- diversity of sources (i.e., journals) and researchers; and
- similarity in length.

Diversity is particularly important. Collectively, the articles should heighten participants' understanding of the scope of the topic and expand their vision of what it can and should be.

If at all possible, the articles should be assigned and distributed in advance to allow for more thoughtful reading. Group time should then be shortened and devoted to discussion with peer "experts."

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purpose of the activity. Explain what a jigsaw is. The jigsaw activity is a cooperative-learning strategy that allows participants to become experts in a particular aspect of the topic and then to teach that aspect to others in the group. The advantage of using the jigsaw is that it provides a good way for participants to learn new content and to reinforce that learning by teaching the content to others.

Sources: Adapted with permission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands from *Building Systems for Professional Growth* by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray. (c) 1989, 2-7 to 2-10.

Adapted with permission of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development from *Human Resource Development Program Handbook: A Practical Guide for Staff Developers* by Cerylle A. Moffett and Cynthia L. Warger. (c) 1988.

Have participants divide into home groups. In a common variation of the activity, you will assign each member of the home group a different article on a common topic. Then, have the home groups split into new groups -- expert groups consisting of all those who were assigned a common article. In the expert groups, have members discuss what they've read, highlight major points, cite examples, and discuss how they will teach the material to their home group. After a designated period of time, have the home group reconvene, with each member teaching the rest of the group what he or she has learned.

The overhead "Jigsaw Exercise" illustrates the structure and sequence of the jigsaw activity. In this example, there are four home groups of four members each. Assign each group member a number from one to four. Have all the "ones" form a new expert group, all the "twos" do the same, and so on. Have the expert groups meet and discuss the reading. Finally, have them return to their original home group to share their learnings and discuss implications for their work.

2. Have participants form home groups of four (see overhead).

3. Assign a different article to each person in a group or have them self-select.

4. Have participants read independently.

5. Then, have them form homogeneous or expert groups of readers for each article. Discuss and identify:

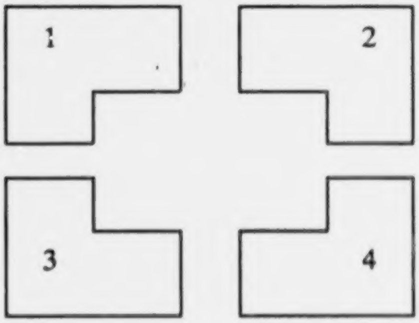
    - major ideas the author(s) presents;
    - the most significant points; and
    - experiences which support or refute the points presented in the article.

    Have participants develop a one-page "crib sheet" (a summary or visual of key points) to use when they "teach" their peers in their home groups.

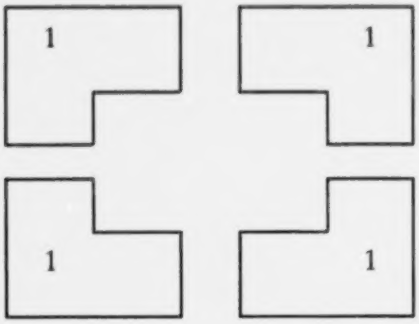
6. Have them return to home groups. Ask experts to teach their peers about their article. Then, have them discuss similarities and dissimilarities.

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

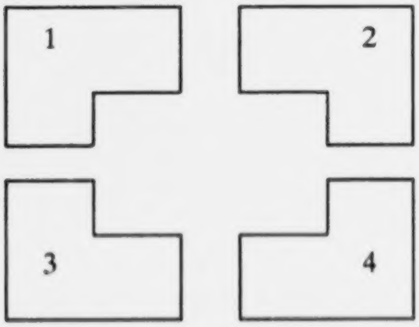
JIGSAW EXERCISE



1. HOME GROUP



2. EXPERT GROUP



3. HOME GROUP

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APPENDIX 3-D

PROMOTING CONSTRUCTIVE RESOLUTION OF CONTROVERSY

Purpose(s): To engage participants in a constructive approach to resolving controversy and arriving at consensus in collective decision making

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy" for each participant, blank paper, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity may be done with as few as three or four participants, but the optimum size is 14 to 16. Ideally, two trainers would conduct the activity.

One trainer presents half of the group with a discussion topic in which individuals must, using role play, advocate for or against a particular position and arrive at a recommendation within a specified time. Subjects for discussion could include:

- the initiation of an outstanding teacher-of-the-year award for the school;
- the need to identify mentor teachers and begin a mentoring program;
- curriculum materials;
- specific teaching approaches to be implemented; or
- the school's personnel evaluation tools.

The other trainer instructs the other half of the group on observation and feedback skills for use during the role play. Observers use a checklist to provide feedback to all the role play participants at the end of the role play.

Process/Steps:

1. Share the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy."
2. Divide the participants into two groups: role play participants and observers. Each participant has an observer assigned to him or her throughout the activity.
3. Have each trainer instruct the members of his or her respective group on their responsibilities as participants throughout the activity.
    a. Each participant must advocate for his or her position, but a group recommendation must be arrived at within 15 minutes.
    b. Use of the handout "Rules for Constructive Controversy" as an observer checklist is explained. Each observer will be responsible for recording the behaviors of one of the participants by using the checklist, and for providing feedback at the end of the activity.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, 2d ed., by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson. (c) 1982.

4. Have participants carry out role play and observation.
5. Have observers give feedback to participants on an individual basis.
6. Then have all participants share their perceptions of the process with the entire group.

Time Required: 60 minutes

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RULES FOR CONSTRUCTIVE CONTROVERSY

1. Focus on achieving the group's goal -- not dominating the group.
2. Take active part in group discussions.
3. Value, respect, and take seriously everyone's contribution.
4. Use good sending and receiving skills.
5. Be critical of ideas, not of individuals.
6. Strive to understand the position and frame of reference of those with whom you disagree.
7. Don't take personally other member's disagreements and rejection of your ideas.
8. Bring out differences of opinion and then combine several positions into a creative position.
9. Argue rationally -- generate ideas, organize reason, draw conclusions.
10. Evaluate contributions based on soundness, not on who proposed them.

In Constructive Controversy:

- Relationships among group members are stronger.
- Group members like and trust each other more.
- All members of a group are satisfied with the results of the conflict.
- All members of a group have improved their ability to resolve future conflicts with one another.

Source: Adapted with permission of the authors from *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills*, 2d ed., by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson. (c) 1982.

APPENDIX 3-E

APPROACHES TO DECISION MAKING

Establishing a mentoring program demands a series of decisions, from establishing goals for change through selecting appropriate strategies, activities, timing, and responsibilities. Individuals are more likely to support a decision in which they have played a part -- a factor that underscores the importance of the entire problem-solving process.

Although it is often difficult to achieve an agreed-upon decision (because group members lean heavily toward the solutions they propose), it is crucial for participants to realize that avoiding a decision is, in fact, a decision -- a choice *not* to move forward or change the status quo. Sound decisions are precursors to productive action -- the crux of effective school change.

Mentor trainers can help groups make decisions in several ways. Group decisions are sometimes made by **individuals** or **subgroups** who push through a decision, relying on the passivity of the other participants. This is particularly likely to happen when a group begins meeting and either the principal or a group of informal leaders takes charge of the decision-making process. Trainers can confront that pattern of decision making by commenting on its frequency and questioning whether all opinions are being taken into consideration.

Other decision-making methods include:

> **Majority vote:** More than half the group members agree on a single choice. A major drawback is that those who voted against the decision may not be committed to its implementation.
>
> **Unanimous vote:** All group members agree. Problems may arise because some people who feel the pressure to agree may not really support the decision, and because one person can block the decision by disagreeing.
>
> **Consensus:** Internal discussions and polls take place to find common points of agreement. In the course of trying to reach consensus, group members suggest modifications to the original proposal that may be acceptable to others, resulting in a genuine agreement to implement the revised decision. This method, although time-consuming, is most appropriate when important policy decisions are being made.

Many believe that decisions made by consensus are of higher quality than those arrived at through other forms of decision making. Consensus is a collective opinion arrived at by a group whose members have listened carefully to the opinions of others, have communicated openly, and have been able to state their opposition to other members' views and seek alternatives in a constructive manner. When a decision is made by consensus, all members -- because they have had the opportunity to influence it -- should feel they understand the decision and can support it.

Johnson and Johnson (1975) provide the following guidelines for consensual decision making:

1. Avoid blindly arguing for your own individual judgments. Present your position as clearly and logically as possible, but listen to other members' reactions and consider them carefully before you press your point.

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2. Avoid changing your mind *only* to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions to which you are at least somewhat agreeable. Yield only to positions that have objective and logically sound foundations.

3. Avoid "conflict-reducing" procedures such as majority vote, tossing a coin, averaging, or bargaining in reaching decisions.

4. Seek out differences of opinion; they are natural and expected. Try to involve everyone in the decision process. Disagreements can help the group's decision because they present a wide range of information and opinions, thereby creating a better chance for the group to hit upon more adequate solutions.

5. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose when discussion reaches a stalemate. Instead, look for the next most acceptable alternative for all members.

6. Discuss underlying assumptions, listen carefully to one another, and encourage the participation of all members.

In consensus decision making, all group members must participate actively and they must feel that all opinions expressed are considered equally, regardless of individual role designations. According to Johnson and Johnson (1975):

> Decisions by consensus take a great deal of time and member motivation and will often prove frustrating to designated leaders. But in terms of the future ability of the group to make high-quality decisions, consensus productively resolves controversies and conflicts -- which majority vote, minority rule, and all other methods of decision making do not. Research shows that the more effective groups tend to have designated leaders who allow greater participation, more differences of opinions to be expressed, and greater acceptance of different decisions (Torrance 1957). Effective leaders have been shown to encourage minority opinions and conflict to a greater extent than less effective leaders (Maier and Solem 1952). Group members with little influence over a decision not only fail to contribute their resources to it, but usually are less likely to carry it out when action is required (Coch and French 1948).

The handout "General Types of Group Decisions" illustrates the relationship among numbers of people involved in decision making, type of decision-making method, and amount of time needed.

Trainers can encourage participants to reflect on the decision-making process by asking questions like the following:

1. What techniques are generally used to make decisions?

2. Why are some decision-making approaches more appropriate than others?

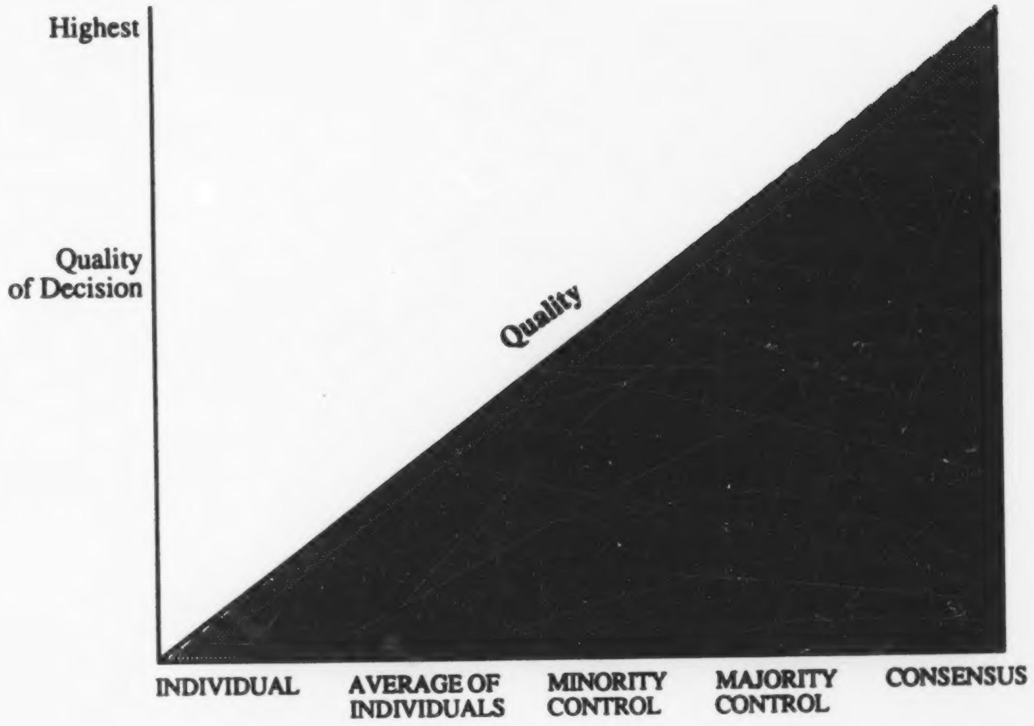
3. Do all participants feel that their contributions are valued and that they have the opportunity to influence the final decision?

4. Is enough time allocated for serious decision making?

5. Is there an acceptable way to give feedback and evaluate group decisions?

Through these and other questions, trainers can strengthen decision-making processes, support active participation by all participants, intervene when appropriate, and sensitively comment on the process of a group.

GENERAL TYPES OF GROUP DECISIONS



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APPENDIX 3-F

THE NOMINAL GROUP PROCESS

The nominal group process is a method for structuring groups whereby individual judgments are pooled and used when there is uncertainty or disagreement about the nature of the problem and possible solutions. The process is helpful in identifying problems, exploring solutions, and establishing priorities. It works best with groups of five to nine participants. Larger groups can be handled by making minor changes in procedure, particularly in Step 2, but any group larger than 12 should be subdivided.

Nominal Group Process Procedures

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing.

Read the focus question aloud and ask participants to list their responses in phrases or brief sentences. Request that they work silently and independently. Allow four to eight minutes.

Step 2: Round-robin recording of ideas.

Go around the table and get one idea from each participant. Write the ideas on newsprint. As each sheet is finished, tape it on the wall so that the entire list is visible. Number each item. Leave space to the left of each number to record votes at a later time. Encourage hitchhiking on other ideas. Discourage discussion, elaboration, or justification.

Step 3: Serial discussion of the list of ideas.

Clarification: Explain that the purpose of this step is clarification. Read item 1 aloud and invite clarifying comments. Then, read item 2 and continue discussing each item in turn until the list is covered. Arguments are unnecessary because each participant will have a chance to vote independently in Step 4. As soon as the logic and meaning of the items are clear, cut off discussion.

Categorization: Once each item has been discussed, duplicate items should be identified and combined. This may necessitate rewriting some of the items before the voting step. However, resist the temptation to combine *many* items into broader categories. Some participants may seek to achieve consensus by this means and the precision of the original items may be lost, or the combined item will become so abstract and all-inclusive that the group is able to avoid the difficult choices inherent in prioritizing.

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Step 4: Voting.

Have each participant select five items that are most important to him or her, write them down, and then rank order them (1=*least* important; 5=*most* important). Record the priority numbers on newsprint in front of the group. The numbers are then added, resulting in a total for each item. Items can then be prioritized -- those items with the highest numbers are considered the highest priority. Have the group discuss the voting patterns. If desired, the items can be further clarified and a second vote taken.

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Educating Poor Minority Children

Schools must win the support of parents and learn to respond flexibly and creatively to students' needs. A successful program developed in New Haven points the way

by James P. Comer

Thomas Jefferson and other advocates of free public schools believed fervently that an educated populace is the lifeblood of democracy. In their view the school clearly had a political purpose: to socialize children to become good citizens. Jefferson wrote, "I know no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion."

It is a long fall from this lofty ideal to the grim reality facing youths at the margins of today's society. Poor minority children are undereducated in disproportionate numbers across the country. Academically such children may lag behind the national average by up to two years. In large cities as many as 50 percent of minority children drop out of school. The failure to educate these children makes ever harder the task of rectifying economic and social inequities. Job opportunities increasingly reside in service and technology industries, but poor minority youths are the least likely to have the social and academic skills these jobs demand. Unless schools can find a way to educate them and bring them into the mainstream, all the problems associated with unemployment and alienation will escalate.

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The task seems overwhelming. And yet it can be done. In 1968 my colleagues and I at Yale University's Child Study Center started an intervention project at two inner-city schools in New Haven. Unlike many of the reforms that are now being tried or proposed, which focus on academic concerns such as teacher credentials and basic skills, our program promotes development and learning by building supportive bonds that draw together children, parents and school. By 1980 academic performance at the two New Haven schools had surpassed the national average, and truancy and disciplinary problems had declined markedly. We have now begun to duplicate that success at more than 50 schools around the country.

The perceptions underlying our approach are partly rooted in my own childhood. In 1939 I entered an elementary school in East Chicago, Ind., with three other black youngsters from a low-income community. The school was considered one of the best in the district; it was racially integrated and served the highest socioeconomic group in town. All four of us were from two-parent families, and our fathers made a living wage in the local steel mill. We were not burdened by any of the disadvantages—school segregation, inadequate schools, single-parent families, unemployment—commonly cited as causes of educational underachievement in poor black children. Yet in spite of the fact that we had similar intellectual potential, my three friends have had difficult lives: one died prematurely from alcoholism, a second spent a large part of his life in jail and a third has been in and out of mental institutions.

Why did my life turn out better? I think it was largely because my parents, unlike those of my friends, gave me the social skills and confidence that enabled me to take advantage of educational opportunities. For example, I became friendly with my third-grade teacher, with whom I would walk hand in hand to school every day. My parents took me to the library so that I could read many books. My three friends, however, never read books—which frustrated and angered their

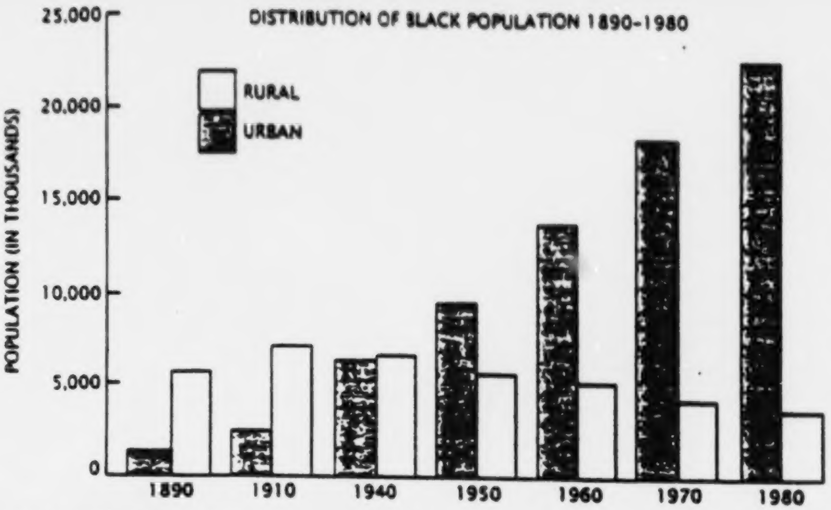
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

teachers. What the teachers did not realize was that their parents were afraid to go to the library; indeed, they were uncomfortable around white people in general and avoided them.

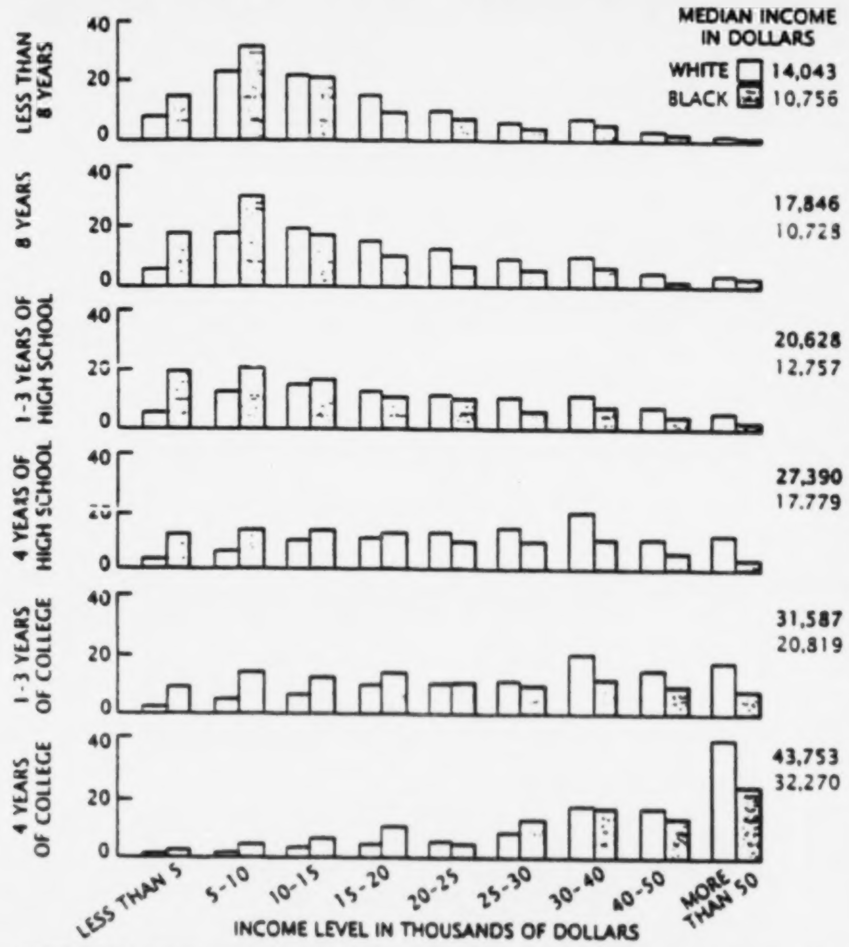
In the 1960's I began to speculate that the contrast between a child's experiences at home and those in school deeply affects the child's psychosocial development, and that this in turn shapes academic achievement. The contrast would be particularly sharp for poor minority children from families outside the mainstream. If my hunches were correct, then the failure to bridge the social and cultural gap between home and school may lie at the root of the poor academic performance of many of these children.

Yet current educational reforms deemphasize interpersonal factors and focus instead on instruction and curriculum. Such approaches reveal a blind spot: they assume that all children come from mainstream backgrounds and arrive at school equally well prepared to perform as the school expects them to. Reading, writing, arithmetic and science are delivered to students in much the same way as tires, windows and doors are attached to the frame of an automobile on an assembly line. Yet students do not come in standardized frames that passively receive what is delivered. Most educators do not challenge this assumption, however, and the approach has never been systematically evaluated or modified through direct experiments in schools.

In contrast, Albert J. Soln
colleagues at Yale's Chil
Center believed educational reformers should develop their theories by directly observing and intervening in schools over long periods of time. Solnit's ideas inspired the school-intervention research project that was begun by the center and the New Haven school system in 1968 and continued until 1980. I was asked to direct the project and to work with a social worker, a psychologist and a special-education teacher from the center. We decided to immerse ourselves in the schools to learn how they function and then, on the basis of our findings, to develop and implement a model for improving the schools. We were guided by our knowledge of public health,



BLACK MIGRATION into urban communities (towns of more than 2,500 people) accelerated after World War II. The rural black population once greatly outnumbered the urban population, but the postwar economic boom led large numbers of blacks to move to the cities in search of jobs. Discrimination and lack of adequate education, however, denied many blacks access to the primary urban job markets.



EDUCATION LEVEL correlated to family income for whites and blacks shows that black incomes are at least a third less than the incomes of whites with equivalent schooling. For a given level of schooling completed by the family head, the graph indicates the percentage of families within each income bracket. Lack of education reduces the income of blacks more than that of whites, and black income rises more slowly with education than white income does. The data, for 1984, are from *Statistical Abstract of the United States 1987*, issued by the U.S. Department of Commerce.

human ecology, history and child development—and by common sense.

Our model evolved in two schools: the Martin Luther King, Jr., School, which had about 300 pupils from kindergarten through fourth grade, and the Katharine Brennan School, which had more than 350 pupils from kindergarten through fifth grade. The pupils were 99 percent black and almost all poor; more than 70 percent were from families receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children. At the beginning of the project the pupils were ranked near the bottom in achievement and attendance among the 33 schools in the city. There were serious problems with attendance and discipline. The staffs were discouraged; their turnover rate was 25 percent. Parents were dejected, distrustful, angry and alienated.

Both staff and parents approached the first year of the project with high expectations. But because teachers and administrators could not agree on clear goals and strategies, we had a difficult school opening. Some new teachers tried to have open classrooms, but the children soon became uncontrollable. Teachers blamed the administration for not providing adequate resources, and parents became angry—angry enough to march on one of the schools. Needless to say, the students did not learn much.

We, on the other hand, learned a great deal. The spectacular deterioration of the schools illuminated their social dynamics, something that would otherwise have taken us many years to perceive. We learned, first of all, that both the schools and our project needed more structure; we established regular meetings so that the staff could coordinate plans and set goals. More important, our analysis of interactions among parents, staff and students revealed a basic problem underlying the schools' dismal academic and disciplinary record: the sociocultural misalignment between home and school. We developed a way to understand how such misalignments disrupt beneficial relations and how to overcome them in order to promote educational development.

Our understanding is based on the fact that a child develops a strong emotional bond to competent caretakers (usually parents) that enables them to help the child develop. Many kinds of development, in social, psychological, emotional, moral, linguistic and cognitive areas, are critical to future academic learning. The attitudes, values and behavior of the family and its social network strongly affect such development.

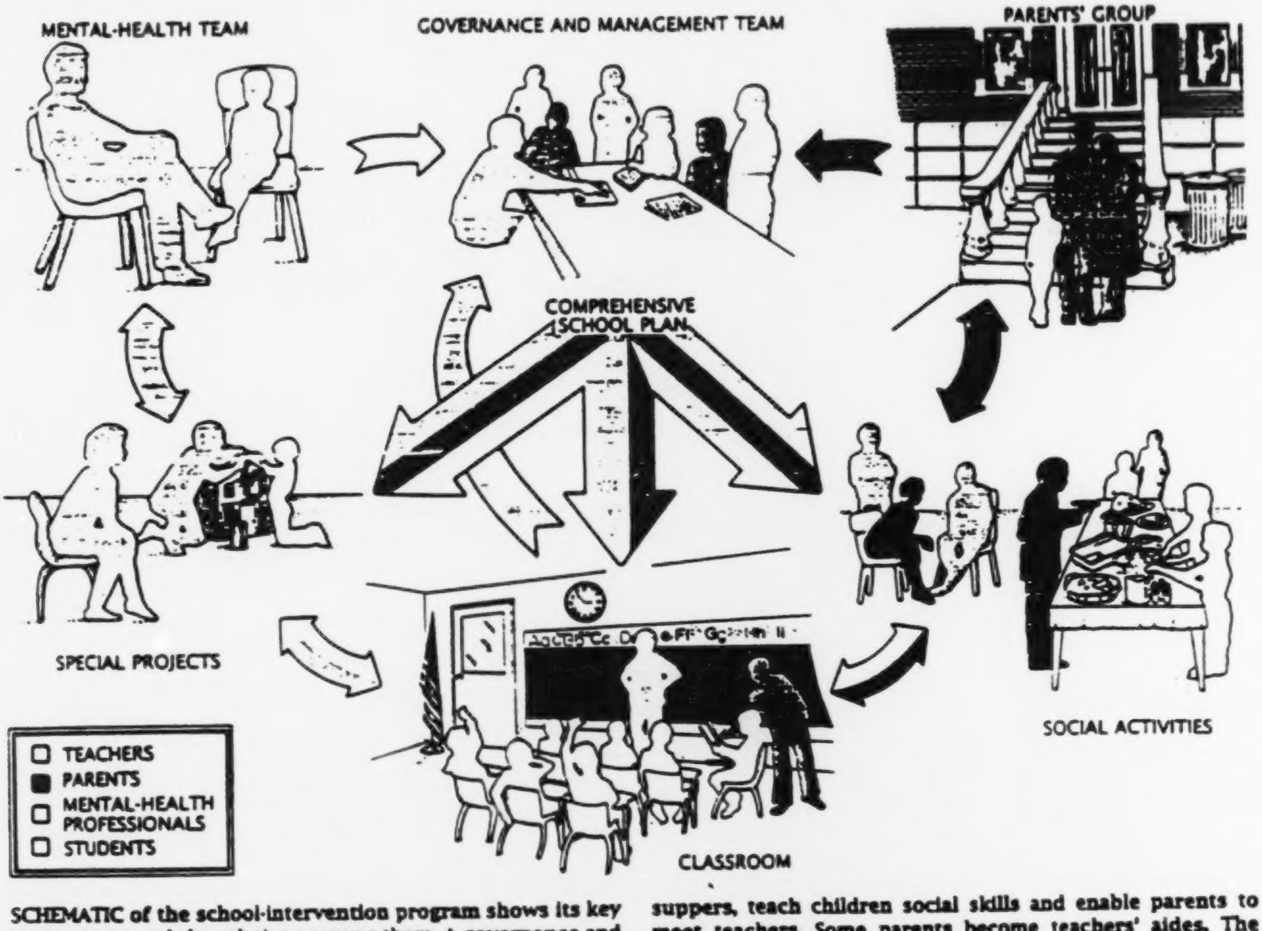
A child whose development meshes with the mainstream values encountered at school will be prepared to achieve at the level of his or her ability. In addition the meshing of home and school fosters further development: when a child's social skills are considered appropriate by the teacher, they elicit positive reactions. A bond develops between the child and the teacher, who can now join in supporting the overall development of the child.

A child from a poor, marginal family, in contrast, is likely to enter school without adequate preparation. The child may arrive without ever having learned such social skills as negotiation and compromise. A child who is expected to read at school may come from a home where no one reads and may never have heard a parent read bedtime stories. The child's language skills may be underdeveloped or nonstandard. Expectations at home and at school may be radically at odds. For example, in some families a child who does not fight back will be punished. And yet the same behavior will get the child into trouble at school.

Such lack of development or development that is at odds with the mainstream occurs disproportionately often among children from the minority groups that have had the most traumatic experiences in this society: Native Americans, Hispanics and blacks. The religious, political, economic and social institutions that had organized and stabilized their communities have suffered severe discontinuity and destruction. Furthermore, these groups have been excluded from educational, economic and political opportunity. These themes are particularly vivid in the black experience.

Blacks arrived in this country forcibly uprooted from their own culture, and they had another culture—that of slavery—imposed on them was a state of enforced d cy and inferiority, which offered future. The dominant Anglo culture, in contrast, placed a high value on independence and personal advancement. The dominant culture devalued the imposed black culture, and many blacks in turn developed a negative self-image. After the abolition of slavery, widespread discrimination denied blacks access to education and to the political and economic mainstream. Yet in spite of these psychological and social handicaps many poor black families, particularly in rural areas, were able to develop strong religious and cultural support systems and to function reasonably well.

After World War II opportunities for rural work diminished and many black families migrated to cities, but as a result of discrimination they were largely shut out of the primary job markets. Moreover, urban jobs de-



SCHEMATIC of the school-intervention program shows its key components and the relations among them. A governance and management team, consisting of the principal, parents, teachers and a mental-health worker, develops a comprehensive school plan covering academics, social activities and special programs, such as a Discovery Room for children who have lost interest in learning. Social activities, such as potluck suppers, teach children social skills and enable parents to meet teachers. Some parents become teachers' aides. The mental-health team assigns a member to work with a child who is having difficulty. It also tries to prevent behavior problems by recommending changes in school procedures. By reducing behavior problems and improving relations with parents, the program creates a school climate conducive to learning.

manded a higher level of education than rural ones, and blacks, undereducated in prewar years, were at a disadvantage. At the same time, they experienced severe stress resulting from the loss of supportive communities. For all these reasons, many black families began to function less well and could not provide their children with preschool experiences that would enable them to succeed in school.

Furthermore, blacks were able to achieve mainstream success only in limited professional areas. Thus they could not gain a significant share of political, economic and social power in the larger society and thereby help to advance socially marginal blacks. With time, marginal blacks came to resent mainstream blacks and whites for being unable—and apparently unwilling—to help them, and they defensively rejected the mainstream.

In spite of their alienation from the mainstream, many poor black parents still look to the school as their hope—indeed, their only hope—for the future, even though at the same time they expect the school to fail them and their children as other mainstream institutions have. And in fact the schools often do fail them. Typical schools, with their hierarchical and authoritarian structure, cannot give underdeveloped or differently developed students the skills and experiences that will enable them to fulfill expectations at the school. Instead such students are labeled "bad," unmotivated or stupid. Staff people punish the children and hold low expectations for them, often blaming the students, their parents and their communities for the problems. Parents, for their part, take the problems as a personal failure or as evidence of animosity and rejection by the mainstream. They lose hope and confidence and become less supportive of the school. Some parents, ashamed of their speech, dress or failure to hold jobs, become defensive and hostile, avoiding contact with the school staff.

The result is a high degree of mutual distrust between home and school. A black first-grade teacher in an inner-city school with a nearly all-black student body recalled explaining classroom rules on the first day. When she finished, a six-year-old raised his hand and said, "Teacher, my mama said I don't have to do anything you say." Fortunately this teacher understood the underlying problem, but most teachers would have reacted angrily, whereupon any chance of gaining parental cooperation would have quickly evaporated. This degree of alienation between home and school makes it difficult to nurture a bond between child and teacher that can support development and learning.

The consequences of alienation become most apparent when these children reach the age of about eight. Around this age they are expected to progress academically at a rate that begins to exceed their level of development. In addition the children begin to understand how they and their families differ in income, education and sometimes race and style from other people in the school. At this age, moreover, children seek to decrease their dependence on adults and on the approval of adults.

Unable to achieve in school, these children begin to see academic success as unattainable, and so they protect themselves by deciding school is unimportant. Many seek a sense of adequacy, belonging and self-affirmation in nonmainstream groups that do not value academic achievement. Such children are at risk for dropping out, teen-age pregnancy, drug abuse and crime. On the other hand, the decision to pursue academic achievement and to join the mainstream also exacts a heavy price: such a choice means rejecting the culture of one's parents and social group.

Our analysis of the two New Haven schools suggested that the key to academic achievement is to promote psychological development in students, which encourages bonding to the school. Doing so requires fostering positive interaction between parents and school staff, a task for which most staff people are not trained. Such changes cannot be mandated or sustained from outside the school. Our task, then, was to create a strategy that would overcome the staff's resistance to change, instill in them a working understanding of child development and enable them to improve relations with parents.

From our experience during the first difficult year it was obvious that we would make no progress until we had reduced the destructive interactions among parents, teachers and administrators and given cohesiveness and direction to the schools' management and teaching. To this end we created in each school a governance and management team of about a dozen people led by the principal and made up of elected parents and teachers, a mental-health specialist and a member of the nonprofessional support staff—all the adults who had a stake in the outcome. The teams decided issues ranging from the schools' academic and social program to changes in school procedures that seemed to engender behavior problems.

Several rules guided these teams. First, team members had to recognize the authority of the principal but, equally important, the principal could not push through decisions without weighing the concerns of the team members. Second, we agreed to focus efforts on problem solving and not waste time and energy in placing blame. Third, we made decisions by consensus rather than by vote; this promoted cooperation by reducing the harmful tendency of groups to polarize into "winners" and "losers."

The teams were not fully accepted at first, nor were they immediately effective, because we at the center were viewed as outsiders (from Yale, to boot, which working-class people in New Haven have always regarded with suspicion). But as we helped the principals to see that power sharing increased their own ability to manage the school, and as teachers and administrators benefited, the staff became more willing to apply our expertise in social and behavioral sciences to every aspect of the school.

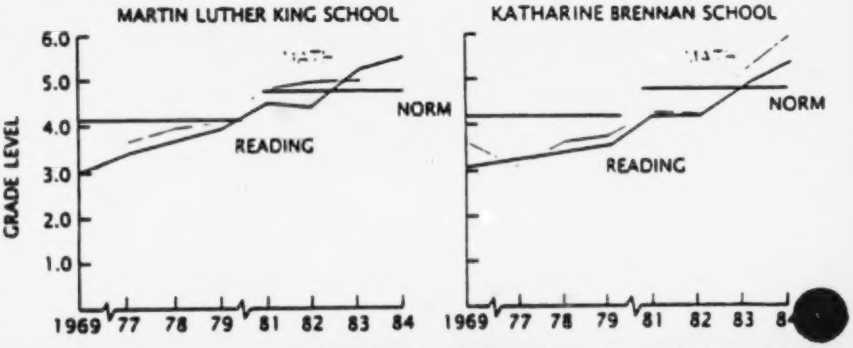
We invited parents from among the group that had protested against us in the first year to join the team. With their input we developed a program that involved parents at three levels: shaping policy through their representatives on the governance and management team, participating in activities supporting the school program, and attending school events.

At one point about a dozen parents worked as classroom assistants and formed the core of the parents' group. (They were paid the minimum wage.) Parents and staff sponsored activities such as potluck suppers, book fairs and graduation ceremonies. These social gatherings fostered good relations between parents and staff, so that when a child was having problems, the staff could discuss the matter with the parents without eliciting defensive reactions. As a result the school climate and student behavior improved, and more parents began to attend school activities.

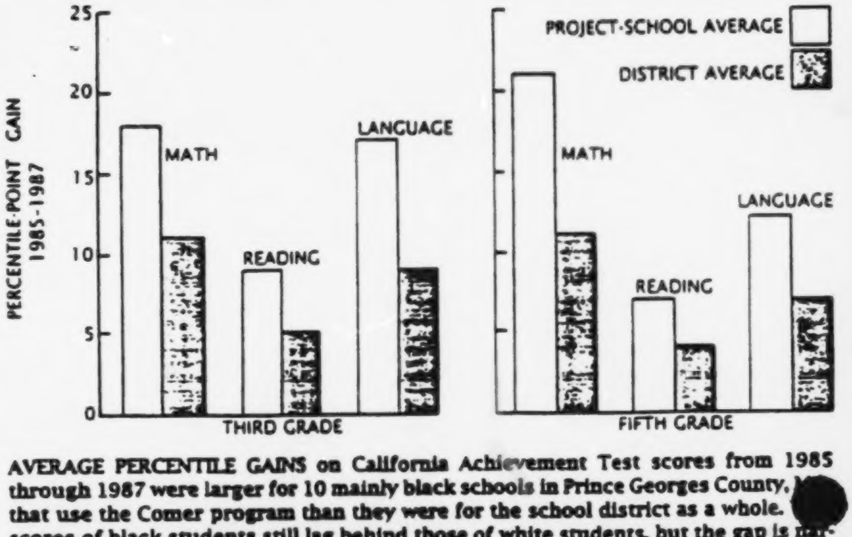
In a typical school, students who have emotional, learning or behavioral difficulties are seen by the school's psychologist, social worker or special-education teacher, who all work independently of one another. In our project, however, they worked as a team. We found this to be more efficient; the team would discuss each case and assign one member to it. The team approach also made it easier to detect patterns of troublesome behavior and to determine whether some aspect of the school was making them worse. Through its delegate on the governance and management team, the mental-health group recommended changes in school policies and practices so that students' developmental needs would be served better and behavior problems prevented.

These actions reduced the sense of failure, the feelings of anger and the loss of confidence that can lead to problem behavior among students. For example, an eight-year-old who was transferred into King from another school was taken directly to the classroom. He panicked, kicked the teacher in the leg and ran out. Usually such a child is punished. If nothing is done to reduce the child's an[illegible] cycle is often repeated until the c[illegible] is labeled disturbed and referred for treatment. Our mental-health team helped the school staff to understand that the child's anxiety was a nat[illegible]ral reaction to being thrust amo[illegible] strangers, and, together with the staff, we developed an orientation program to introduce transfer students and their parents to the school.

In the course of the 12 years we spent in the New Haven schools, other programs emerged in response to students' needs. In one school, children were kept with the same teacher for two years. A Discovery Room enabled "turned off" children to form a trusting relationship with an adult and, through play, rediscover an interest in learning. A Crisis Room provided a



FOURTH GRADERS at the two New Haven schools taking part in Yale University's Child Study Center's intervention program registered steady gains in achievement-test scores from 1969 through 1984. The graphs show mean scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills in reading (*red*) and mathematics (*blue*); scores in 1969 are for the Metropolitan Achievement Test. From 1969 through 1979 the tests were given in the fall (when the norm is a score of 4.2); from 1981 through 1984 the tests were given in the spring (norm score 4.8). Scores have stayed near the 1984 levels since then.



AVERAGE PERCENTILE GAINS on California Achievement Test scores from 1985 through 1987 were larger for 10 mainly black schools in Prince Georges County, [illegible] that use the Comer program than they were for the school district as a whole. [illegible] scores of black students still lag behind those of white students, but the gap is narrowing. The school district, the 15th-largest in the U.S., has 105,000 students, 62 percent of whom are black. The schools using the program are more than 90 percent black; they receive extra staff and funds because they have been hard to integrate.

refuge for children who were "out of control." We discovered that this behavior could often be traced to a traumatic home experience, and so staff members helped the children to handle their feelings and regain a sense of control. With each intervention the staff became increasingly sensitive to the concerns of developing children and to the fact that behavior problems result mainly from unmet needs rather than from willful badness—and that actions can be taken to meet these needs.

By 1975 the program was clearly having an effect. Behavioral problems had declined, relations between parents and staff had improved and the intelligence of the children had become manifest. In that year we drew up a formal School Development Program based on the key ingredients of our success: the governance team, the parents' program and the mental-health team.

Having established a way to achieve and maintain a smoothly functioning school, we decided to see whether the school might also play a role in redressing the problem of social misalignment. We argued that it should be possible to teach our nonmainstream students the social skills that are expected of them in school, and that the acquisition of these skills would help them to succeed academically.

Staff and parents devised a curriculum of social skills, with instruction in the subjects children would need to know: politics and government, business and economics, health and nutrition, and spiritual and leisure activity. The staff chose specialists to help develop the program. Children learned how to write invitations and thank-you notes, how to serve as hosts, how the body functions, how to write checks, how to plan concerts, and so on. Each activity combined basic academic skills with social skills and an appreciation of the arts. These activities were an immediate and dramatic success. Students, parents and staff alike all felt a surge of excitement and a growing sense of participating in the mainstream.

The intervention program in New Haven produced significant academic gains. The students had once ranked lowest in achievement among the 33 elementary schools in the city, but by 1979, without any change in the socioeconomic makeup of the schools, students in the fourth grade had caught up to their grade level. By 1984 pupils in the fourth grade in the two schools ranked third- and fourth-highest on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. By the early 1980's attendance rates at King were either first or second in the city. There have been no serious behavior problems at either school in more than a decade.

In 1980 our group left the schools. The program was fully integrated into the normal practices of the staff, who continued to carry it out. In the same year we began to develop a way to apply our program in other schools. We left intact the key elements of our success in New Haven—the governance and management team, the parents' program and the mental-health team, along with our operating rules—while allowing specific social and academic activities to vary with the needs of a particular school. In a sense the program enables school personnel to engage in a "clinical practice": armed with theories of child development and education, together with observations of children and school systems, they can diagnose problems in the school and develop solutions.

The Prince Georges County, Md., and Benton Harbor, Mich., school districts, which serve mainly low-income black children, have been using the program for several years; they have achieved successes on a par with those of the two New Haven schools. The program is being introduced to all New Haven schools, as well as to three other districts: Norfolk, Va., Lee County, Ark. (both also serving mainly poor black children), and Leavenworth, Kans. The program is now being implemented in more than 50 schools around the country, including two middle schools and one high school.

All the money and effort expended for educational reform will have only limited benefits—particularly for poor minority children—as long as the underlying developmental and social issues remain unaddressed. Yet most teachers and administrators are not trained to organize and manage schools in ways that support the overall development of students. Nor does their training enable them to analyze, much less solve, the social-misalignment problems of children from outside the mainstream.

The first step toward improving the education of these children, then, is to induce teachers' colleges and schools of education to focus on student development. Teachers who invest time in training will have an incentive to use what they have learned. The efforts of individuals will not be enough: the entire staff of a school must embrace new ways of thinking.

School districts, state and local governments and school boards must actively support these changes. They must recognize that students' social development is as important to society as their academic ability. They must select, certify and reward teachers and administrators who are skilled in nurturing the development of students. They must evaluate schools by their ability not only to produce high test scores but also to prepare students to assume adult responsibilities. And they must provide necessary funds.

The Federal Government must play a leading role in bringing about national educational reforms that can prepare young people to be effective and responsible citizens. Besides appropriating funds and establishing programs, the Government must facilitate the interaction of state and local government, educational authorities and private interests—foundations, businesses, colleges and universities.

To pull all of this together, I believe a National Academy of Education is needed. Its purpose would be to set national priorities, assess current research in education, learn how to implement approaches that work, identify areas for further study and allocate resources effectively. Such an academy must be free from the pressures of political expediency, and the interests of researchers must be balanced against those of educators. It could be created largely from existing Federal programs and governed by those who have a stake in education: educators, parents, government and business. A National Academy of Education could spearhead a process of change that is geared above all to the needs of children and to the national interest. It could set a timetable and move forward at a rational pace that recognizes the urgent need for reform and at the same time is guided by knowledge and common sense.

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Finding Reality Among the Myths:

Why What You Thought About Sex Equity in Education Isn't So

by Glen Harvey

Today we often hear that inequitable education has been laid to rest. Has it? Ms. Harvey explores a number of myths that cloud the discussion of this crucial issue. Equity and excellence can be achieved, she argues.

IN THIS ERA of education reform, we often hear that inequitable education is a problem of the past, having been laid to rest in the Sixties and Seventies. Now it is time, the argument runs, to turn our national attention to achieving excellence rather than equity.

Is this an accurate portrayal of the reality of education as it is experienced by women and girls in the U.S.? Have we actually achieved sex equity in education in just two decades? Are females now receiving the same educational opportunities and services as males? And must we, therefore, assume that persistent disparities between the sexes are explained by individual differences and preferences?

Recently, many people have begun to answer these questions in the affirmative, pointing to such statistical evidence as higher rates of female enrollment in postsecondary education and increased numbers of advanced degrees earned by women. But do these figures provide a reliable picture of the educa-

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Illustration by Lev Kalberda

tional experiences of females or are they a hall of mirrors, seemingly valid but reflecting only widespread belief in persistent myths about sex equity in education?

To provide a reality-based appraisal of the educational condition of women and girls, 17 researchers and educators from across the U.S. were invited to a symposium on "Changing Myths About Sex Equity in Education" at the 11th Annual Research on Women in Education Conference, held in October 1985 in Boston.[1] From this session emerged a clearer understanding both of the myths that influence thinking and decision making about the education of females and of the reality that such myths disguise and distort.

Academic performance and student achievement provide the foundation for one of the most prevalent myths about sex equity in education. This myth can be stated simply: girls outperform boys in subjects that require verbal ability; boys outperform girls in mathematics and related subjects. As is the case with many of the myths associated with sex equity, a grain of truth lies behind this myth and enables it to persist. But the myth disregards recent contradictory evidence and reflects a distorted and oversimplified version of the truth.

Data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) show that achievement test scores of high school seniors in 1972 support the relationship between females and verbal ability and males and mathematical ability. Boys achieved higher scores in mathematics, girls in reading and vocabulary. By 1980, however, a different picture was emerging. Between 1972 and 1980 the advantage of females over males in reading was all but eliminated. Boys actually outperformed girls in vocabulary in 1980, and they continued to maintain their edge over girls in mathematics.[2]

Scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) reflect a similar pattern of increasing disadvantage for females. Since 1972 females have had lower verbal and quantitative scores on the SAT than males. The male advantage over females in verbal ability amounted to only two points in 1972, but it grew to 12 points in 1985. Boys outperformed girls in math by 44 points in 1972 and by 47 points in 1985.

These data are supported by an NCES longitudinal study of high school achievement, which found that female sophomores and seniors had lower test scores than their male counterparts in vocabulary, reading, math, and science. Only in writing did females test higher than males. And, again with the exception of writing, between 1980 and 1982 it has been males rather than females who have made more progress.[3]

By contrast, the results of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) have consistently shown that females outperform males in reading ability, though that gap narrowed slightly between 1971 and 1980. Grade-point averages present another contradiction. Although males often test higher than females on standardized tests, females receive higher grades than boys in all subjects, including math and science.

Obviously, then, the relationship between student achievement and gender is anything but clear. The data are complex and even somewhat contradictory. What is evident, however, is that verbal and mathematical performance cannot be predicted by – or even tightly associated with – a student's sex. This is a myth that is wholly unsupported by the facts.

However, the recent facts do raise two warning flags: when there is evidence of an achievement decline, the scores of females have tended to decline more than those of males; when there is evidence of a gain, males have generally exhibited greater gains than females. These facts raise serious questions about the current educational experiences of females and the causes of their achievement declines.

MISPERCEPTIONS OF female and male achievement reflect but one type of myth about sex equity in education. An entire mythology also surrounds the curriculum and instruction to which students are exposed and the environment in which they are educated. One dominant myth about the early educational environment of girls and boys – a myth shared by parents and educators alike – is that elementary schools are hospitable to girls and hostile to boys. However, it is typically the academic and behavioral problems of boys, not those of girls, that are the primary focus of the school's energy and resources. Thus what is perceived to be a supportive environment for girls is in reality one that ignores female learning deficits. What is perceived to be hostile to boys is really an emphasis on early identification of and attention to male learning deficits.

In the classroom, boys actually receive more instructional attention than girls do; they also receive more praise and criticism.

The educational services provided to students with special needs are good examples of the inaccuracy of the perception that elementary schools are hospitable to girls. At the same time, they are the source of another myth about sex equity in education. The predominant myth runs as follows: the low percentage of females enrolled in special education programs reflects the fact that females do not need specialized programs to succeed in school and in the workplace to the same extent as males. Girls constitute only 33% of the elementary and secondary students identified as needing special educational services. The greatest differences in the rates of identification for males and females are in the categories of learning disabled and emotionally disturbed – both areas in which subjective judgments are particularly influential. Boys are referred for possible program placement as a result of academic or behavioral problems far more often than girls. In addition, female referrals tend to occur when students are older, when they are further behind in academic work, and when the problem is more pronounced than is the case in typical male referrals.[4]

Another myth integrally linked with misperceptions of the educational environment and the education of students with special needs is that male and female students receive equal instructional treatment in classrooms. During the last two decades, considerable emphasis has been placed on generating an awareness of instructional inequities and on creating instructional environments for female and minority students that are as supportive as those provided for males. As a result, educators and parents have come to believe that inequities in classroom instruction have been eliminated.

Although this may seem to be a logical conclusion, an extensive body of research disputes it.[5] In the classroom, boys actually receive more instructional attention than girls do; they also receive more praise and criticism. In addition, boys are more likely to be given detailed instructions, while girls learn to become "helpless" as teachers solve problems for them. Minority females receive the least attention from teachers. Moreover, the problem is compounded by the fact that most teachers appear to be unaware that they treat students differently according to sex.

A variety of widely held myths deal with subject matter. As Patricia Campbell argues in this *Kappan*, misperceptions about females' interest and ability in math and science have severely limited the opportunities for women and girls in these fields. The related myth that females are necessarily less interested and less proficient in using computers than males persists despite evidence to the contrary. Research suggests that computer learning environments tend to favor males for a variety of reasons, but strategies that alter the environments to meet the needs of female students have successfully increased females' use of computers and their interest in them. For example, female enrollment in computer classes increased from 20% in 1979 to 47% in 1984 in schools that participated in EQUALS, a program that trains teachers to encourage females and minorities to enroll in math and computer courses.[6]

In higher education, the mythology of sex equity is particularly widespread. Now that women constitute the majority of undergraduate students in institutions of higher education, the prevailing view is that they have achieved parity with men in enrollment patterns, financial aid, classroom participation, and postgraduate education. However, despite the fact that women now earn half the bachelor's and master's degrees awarded in the U.S. each year, their areas of specialization tend to be in fields that have lower status, pay lower salaries, and have traditionally been dominated by females. In disciplines with strong scientific and technical requirements, such as mathematics and engineering, women remain exceedingly underrepresented. For example, less than 14% of doctoral degrees in the physical sciences and mathematics were awarded to women in 1981-82.[7]

Women also receive less financial aid from public sources than men,[8] and they are more likely to be enrolled in public institutions and in community and junior colleges. Men continue to outnumber women in prestigious liberal arts colleges, in research universities, and in graduate and professional schools. Studies also indicate that the classroom environment experienced by female students discourages their classroom participation, lowers their self-esteem, and has a negative influence on their course and career choices.[9]

MYTHS ABOUT sex equity in education are by no means limited to students. Professional educators are also the subjects of many misconceptions. One particularly pervasive myth involves the unsubstantiated belief that women now have access to the same professional opportunities as their white male counterparts and that, in this respect at least, sex equity has been achieved within the education profession. In fact, only 10% of secondary school principals are female – a smaller proportion than in the 1950s. At the elementary level, where females make up more than 80% of the teaching force, fewer than a quarter of the principals are women; in 1928 women accounted for more than 50% of the nation's elementary school principals.[10]

There is no apparent justification for the underrepresentation of women in the administrative ranks of education. Many studies have found that female administrators perform as well as or better than their male colleagues. Schools with female principals have been shown to have fewer discipline problems, higher faculty and student morale, and higher student achievement.[11]

Opportunities for professional women in physical education and athletics exhibit a pattern similar to that found in administration. In the early 1970s most women's intercollegiate teams were coached by females; in 1984 more than 50% of the NCAA Division I women's teams and most of the men's teams were coached by males. The status of female coaches in Idaho illustrates this downward trend: in 1974, 79% of women's sports were coached by women; by 1984 that percentage had shrunk to an alarming 43%.

"I found out today that the ABC's don't end with C."

One final overarching myth has helped to move recent decisions about education reform away from the realities of sex equity in education. This is the educational myth of the 1980s which claims that educational excellence and equity in education are not compatible. In other words, one is achieved only at the expense of the other. Those who espouse this erroneous belief find themselves forced to choose between achieving excellence or equity in education.

> The problem is compounded by the fact that most teachers appear to be unaware that they treat students differently according to sex.

It is certainly true that achieving any educational goal – be it excellence, equity, or anything else – requires difficult choices and tradeoffs, particularly in the allocation of resources. But it is not true that equity and excellence must necessarily be achieved at one another's expense. There is ample evidence to support the view that both equity and excellence can be achieved when energy is directed toward making education more effective for all students in ways that promote these dual goals. Similarly, there are sound arguments for the view that labeling as "excellent" an education that is inequitable is an abuse of the term.

Inequities can be reduced in ways that raise the quality of education for all, not just for some, students. For example, cooperative learning approaches have been shown to raise achievement levels of students across the lines of gender, race, ethnicity, and ability; to break down racial and ethnic barriers to friendship; and to positively affect self-esteem, attitudes toward school, and concern for others. Similarly, equity-oriented techniques for training teachers have also been shown to result in more equitable and effective teaching (e.g., more time on academic issues, more precise and clear responses to student comments). Thus the choice is not between an excellent and an equitable education, but between demanding that education be both excellent and equitable and agreeing to accept less.

To be both excellent and equitable requires educators, parents, and researchers to identify the educational reality experienced by all students and to dispel the myths that have distracted attention from providing every student with the best education possible. This is, after all, what our system of education should be designed to achieve.

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1. This symposium was organized by Susan S. Klein. Presenters of myths referred to in this article include: Ruth Ekstrom (student performance and achievement), Selma Greenberg (elementary school environment), Susan Bailey (special education), David Sadker (instruction), Jane Schubert (technology), Karen Bogart (higher education), Charol Shakeshaft (school administrators), Myra Sadker (educational administration), Christine Shelton-Walters (professional opportunities for women in athletics), and Glen Harvey (excellence versus equity).

2. Donald A. Rock et al., *Factors Affecting Test Score Decline 1972-80* (Report under review by the National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.).

3. Rock et al., *Determinants of Achievement Gains in High School 1980-82* (Report under review by the National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.).

4. Jane Mercer, *Labeling the Mentally Retarded* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973).

5. See "Sexism in the Classroom: From Grade School to Graduate School," by Myra Sadker and David Sadker, pp. 512-15, this *Kappan*.

6. Susan Bibisi, "High School Girls Shown Superior at Computer Programming," *Education Daily*, 3 June 1985, p. 3.

7. Valena White Plisko, ed., *The Condition of Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1984).

8. Mary Moran, *Student Financial Assistance: Next Steps to Improving Educational and Economic Opportunities for Women* (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Student Financial Assistance, 1983).

9. Karen Bogart et al., *Institutional Self-Study Guide on Sex Equity for Postsecondary Educational Institutions* (Washington, D.C.: Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1981); and Karen Bogart, *Toward Equity: An Action Manual for Women in Academe* (Washington, D.C.: Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1984).

10. Cited in Myra Sadker, "Women in Educational Administration: Report Card 4," the NETWORK, Mid-Atlantic Center for Sex Equity, Washington, D.C., 1985.

11. Charol Shakeshaft, *Wild Patience: The Story of Women in School Administration* (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage, forthcoming).

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Reconceiving Academic Instruction for the Children of Poverty

By examining the premises that underlie conventional approaches to teaching disadvantaged students, educators can devise more challenging content and more effective instructional methods for them, Messrs. Knapp and Shields point out.

BY MICHAEL S. KNAPP AND PATRICK M. SHIELDS

DURING THE last decade we heard many forceful calls for improving the education of all American children. In the wake of those exhortations, increasing attention has been given to the challenge of educating the children who are most at risk of school failure. And such children come, in disproportionate numbers, from families in poverty.[1]

The challenge of educating the children of poverty has long been recognized as a difficult one. Not only do many of these children perform poorly on academic tasks, but also the typical school serving large numbers of such children faces a variety of problems that pose barriers to providing a high-quality education, among them: high rates of mobility among students' families, a high incidence of severe emotional or behavioral problems among students, large numbers of students with limited proficiency in English, low staff morale, and inadequate facilities and resources. The children from poor families – and, to some extent, all children who attend such schools – are *at a disadvantage* in the pursuit of learning. And this fact has obvious long-range consequences for their subsequent employment and personal fulfillment.[2]

> We are often teaching the children of poverty *less* than they are capable of learning.

Over the years we have made some progress in understanding how to educate these children. But recent scholarship and practice suggest that further advances are possible if we are willing to take a fresh look at whom we are teaching, what we are teaching them, and how it is being taught. In particular, we have reason to believe that we are often teaching the children of poverty *less* than they are capable of learning. By examining the premises that underlie conventional approaches to teaching disadvantaged students, educators can devise more challenging content and more effective instructional methods.

WHAT WE KNOW AND WHAT NEEDS RETHINKING

Some important principles related to schooling for the children of poverty are pretty well-established. The folk wisdom among teachers and various lines of research have converged to provide several important insights into the prerequisites for academic learning for such youngsters. The following insights are particularly relevant to the academic instruction offered disadvantaged students.

- *Maximize time-on-task.* Research on classroom management and on generic instructional strategies has convincingly demonstrated that – at least for the kinds of learning goals measured by conventional standardized tests – teaching approaches that maximize students' time-on-task are likely to enhance their achievement.[3] The point may seem obvious, but, in classrooms serving the children of poverty, it is easy to overlook the fact that there are many potential distractions from academic work.
- *Establish high expectations and a school climate that supports academic learning.* More than a decade of research

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The most widely accepted conception of what and how to teach disadvantaged students emphasizes "the basics."

on "effective schools" has increased our understanding of how to build a supportive environment for teaching and learning. Focused initially on inner-city elementary schools that serve large numbers of poor children, these studies suggest that a series of factors can boost student learning. Among them are high expectations for the achievement of all children, active instructional leadership, and a school climate that insures a high priority for academic learning.[4]

• *Strengthen the involvement of parents in support of instruction.* Research on the involvement of parents in instruction has led to another insight that also corresponds with common sense: student learning can be greatly enhanced when parents are actively involved in support of their children's learning.[5] Although many things constrain the role that low-income parents can play in their children's education, numerous examples attest to the powerful influence of parents when they become involved with learning – with or without the active encouragement of the school.

By maximizing students' engagement in learning, by creating a school climate that supports academic learning, and by involving parents in the education of their children, schools that serve the children of poverty can accomplish a great deal. Nevertheless, these improvements establish only a foundation for academic learning; they have little to do with the nature of what is taught and how it is taught.

To date, the most widely accepted conception of what and how to teach disadvantaged students emphasizes "the basics" through skills-based, sequentially ordered curricula that maximize the teacher's direct control over learning opportunities.[6] In this view of academic instruction, the content of mathematics, reading, or writing is a sequence of such discrete skills as, for example, how to divide three-digit numbers with and without remainders, how to decode consonant blends and syllables, or how to begin a sentence with a capital letter and end it with a period.

Such a view of content is appealing because it breaks reading, mathematics, and writing into small, manageable learning tasks that disadvantaged students can easily master. The learners, viewed as individuals with identifiable skills deficits, can then be guided toward the attainment of the skills they lack. A structured, linear sequence of skills serves as a template for diagnosing what students know and do not know, which enables teachers to pinpoint what should be taught or retaught next.

The most widely accepted approaches for conveying these skills to disadvantaged students emphasize teacher-directed instruction, rapid pacing, frequent feedback to students, repeated opportunities for practice and review, and homogeneous whole-class or small-group formats. The benefits of teaching children in this way are readily apparent: children are kept on task, there are few opportunities for distraction, and there are many opportunities to "revisit" the same material until mastery is achieved. Furthermore, teachers are able to monitor students' progress continually and make adjustments as needed.

In the hands of skillful teachers, these approaches to teaching the disadvantaged bear obvious fruit: disadvantaged children can improve their performance on standardized tests of achievement in reading and mathematics.[7] Unintentionally, however, such approaches may limit the learning of the children they are designed to serve by not developing their analytical or conceptual skills, by failing to nurture their ability to express themselves orally or in writing, by repetitively exposing them to the same material, or by failing to provide larger meaning or purpose for learning.[8]

An emerging set of ideas about teaching disadvantaged children, bolstered by research evidence, suggests that we can go beyond the limitations of instruction based on narrowly defined, tightly sequenced sets of skills. First, we must look carefully at our model of the learner. In particular, we must examine what is implied by focusing on the presumed "deficits" of disadvantaged children. Second, we need to examine the content that is being taught to these children in an effort to determine whether it challenges them to acquire more than discrete skills. Third, we must reconsider ways to organize and carry out instruction to achieve more ambitious instructional goals.

In what follows, we review emerging conceptions of learner, of content, and of instructional approach that promise to offer more to the children of poverty. Although we restrict our discussion to the areas of mathematics, reading, and writing in elementary schools, the principles are also applicable to other content areas and to other levels of schooling.

WHOM WE TEACH

A great deal of research and practice has been predicated on the assumption that "disadvantaged" students arrive at school with cognitive, experiential, and linguistic deficits. Such deficits are thought to derive from the family and community situations of these students.

However, by focusing first on what they perceive to be students' deficits, educators risk making inaccurate assessments of children's strengths and weaknesses. For example, teachers have been known to interpret dialectal speech patterns as decoding errors.[9] In the worst case, educators have low expectations for disadvantaged students and set standards that are not high enough to form the foundation for future academic success. Moreover, focusing on the deficits of students from disadvantaged backgrounds draws attention solely to what students cannot do and so risks overlooking their true capabilities. Finally, a focus on the poor preparation of disadvantaged children often distracts attention from how poorly prepared the school may be to serve these youngsters.

We do not mean to suggest that *no* poor children come to school seriously lacking in school-relevant experiences; teachers face such problems every day. There are certainly dysfunctional families in low-income communities, and these families present a significant problem for the schools. However, concentrating primarily on what disadvantaged students lack when they come to school and focusing on the possibility of family dysfunction make it nearly impossible to see the strengths of individual students and of their communities.

A growing body of research, as well as the experience of many educators who work with the children of poverty, provides a conception of disadvantaged students that can help us avoid the adverse consequences of the deficit model.[10] This alternative perspective begins with the simple assumption that *all* students arrive at school with ways of speaking and interacting with adults and peers and with ideas about the purpose of schooling and the likelihood of their success. Understanding these individual characteristics can help educators to explain how students interpret and react to what takes place in the classroom. For many students, the skills, experiences, and behavior patterns they have learned outside of school are readily applicable to the demands and routines of the school experience. For other students – often poor or ethnic minorities – the skills and strategies they have acquired to get along in their own communities often prove ineffective in meeting the demands of the school setting.[11]

From this perspective, students may be at a "disadvantage" both because they come to school poorly prepared and because staff members at the school fail to diagnose and address their particular difficulties. Thus some students are doubly disadvantaged: first, because their patterns of behavior, language use, and values do not match those required in the school setting; second, because teachers and administrators fail to adapt to and take advantage of the strengths that these students do possess. Over time, these phenomena can create a cycle of failure and despair, culminating in students' turning their backs on school and dropping out.[12]

This same line of research, however, also suggests that the cycle of failure and despair can be broken – or need not even begin – if educators take steps to minimize the incongruities between schools and students' homes. Such steps include developing instructional programs that incorporate the life experiences and skills that students bring to the classroom and at the same time providing students with the skills and strategies they will need to succeed in the larger society.[13]

On the one hand, this approach implies that teachers know and respect the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students and that they communicate this respect to students in a personal way. On the other hand, it suggests that teachers, as they explain and model the dimensions of academic learning, should make explicit to these students the assumptions, expectations, and ways of doing things in school – in short, the school culture. Finally, this approach underscores the importance of communication between the school and the home. Its success depends to a great extent on teachers' helping parents first to help their children in school-related activities at home and then to participate meaningfully in supporting and advisory roles in the school.

> It is too easy for teachers and learners to lose sight of the forest because they are focusing on the trees.

WHAT WE TEACH

The mathematics textbooks and basal reading series most commonly used in schools that serve the children of poverty reflect the skills-oriented, sequential curricula alluded to above.[14] Supplemental instruction aimed at low-achieving students is especially likely to exhibit these features. The underlying premises of these curricula are 1) that certain skills are "basic" and must be mastered before more "advanced" work can be tackled and 2) that these skills can and should be taught one at a time, often in isolation from the activity to which the skills relate (e.g., reading a story, writing a poem, thinking through a new mathematics problem).

As we noted above, there are many superficial advantages to this way of constructing the curriculum, but experts in mathematics and literacy are increasingly concerned about its shortcomings. Put simply, they worry that it is too easy for teachers and learners to lose sight of the forest because they are continually focusing on the trees.[15] Taught as discrete skills, the content of such a curriculum often fails to encourage mathematical thinking, comprehension of what is read, or expression and analysis in writing. In isolation from appropriate applications, skills instruction lacks a sense of purpose or meaning. Teaching skills in a fixed sequence leaves many students behind, struggling to master the first steps so that they can progress to more complex – and usually more interesting – work.

The children of poverty are especially prone to experience the adverse effects of the skills-based curriculum. Typically, they have fewer out-of-school opportunities than their more-advantaged counterparts to integrate the learning of discrete skills into true proficiency. Given the frequent disparities between school and their home lives, disadvantaged students often see less purpose for or meaning in skills-based learning tasks than do more-advantaged students; consequently, they need help to find meaning in what they do in school. On the average, children of poverty are more likely to fall behind and never get beyond repetitive practice of basic skills.

Alternative conceptions of curricula in mathematics, reading, and writing exist, and they have been used in classrooms that serve the children of poverty. The broad organizing principles on which these alternative curricula are founded are spelled out below.

In mathematics, schools can offer disadvantaged children a more challenging curriculum by:

- emphasizing understanding of the mathematical concepts embedded in symbols, computation, mathematical problem solving, and so on;
- reducing the emphasis placed on computational skills, especially in the upper-elementary grades;
- covering in depth a broader range of mathematical topics – such as geometry, estimation, probability, and statistics – rather than merely touching on them;
- providing frequent opportunities to apply mathematical ideas and skills to novel problems and real-life situations; and
- reducing the redundancy in mathematics content across the grades.[16]

Similar themes emerge from experts in the teaching of reading and literacy. Promising new curricula in reading share the following characteristics:

- they emphasize meaning (i.e., comprehending what is read) and employ the

Whatever term is used to describe them, low-ability groups too easily become permanent tracks.

full range of cues (phonemic, contextual, and so on) as aids to "constructing" meaning;

- they place less emphasis on the teaching of discrete decoding skills in isolation from their use, as children move up through the grades;
- they expose children to a wide range of appropriate text, including children's literature; and
- they include reading material that reflects and respects the life experiences and backgrounds of the students.[17]

An emerging conception of a good curriculum in writing for any student population parallels that for reading in many respects. Such a curriculum does the following:

- emphasizes meaningful written communication;
- places less emphasis on learning the mechanics of written language (spelling, punctuation, grammar, and so on) in isolation from the act of communicating in writing;
- draws on the experiences and knowledge of students, as well as on realms of experience that are less familiar to students; and
- introduces students to the process of writing and to the skills appropriate to each stage of the process.[18]

Moreover, there is a growing recognition of the importance of linking reading, writing, and oral expression. Curricula that integrate all aspects of the teaching of literacy – for example, by having students write about what they read or having them read and discuss what they have written – are especially likely to provide the coherence and challenge that are so often missing from skills-based, sequential curricula.[19]

HOW WE TEACH

At first glance, the most widely accepted strategies for teaching the children of poverty seem sensible. Such approaches, which emphasize teacher-directed instruction and the use of homogeneous whole-class or small-group formats, help maintain order in the classroom – no small feat in many classrooms with large numbers of disadvantaged children. These and other commonly used strategies allow the teacher to structure learning tasks, monitor progress, maintain momentum, and minimize distractions efficiently. By grouping students who are at similar levels of attainment, teachers can target instruction more closely to their particular needs and skills. For these reasons, this approach to instruction lends itself well to the skills-based, sequential curricula described above.

Students will not be able to assume responsibility for their own learning overnight.

But there are several things that typically *do not* happen in such classrooms, and – if the goal is to engage students in more challenging and coherent academic work – their absence is troublesome. First, when teachers actively direct all or most aspects of instruction, students tend to assume little responsibility for directing their own learning. At worst, children do only what they're told to do and never think about what they're doing, what something means, how to solve a problem sensibly, or how one task relates to another.

Second, tight control and rapid pacing of instruction by the teacher leave little room for interaction among students. Children thus have little opportunity to use one another as resources for learning.

Third, although grouping by ability solves some instructional problems, it generally limits low-achieving students' exposure to high-achieving students who can model mastery of learning tasks. Instead, low-achieving students have only one another to observe and imitate. Most important, whatever term is used to describe them, low-ability groups too easily become permanent tracks.

Alternative approaches exist that strike a balance between teacher direction and student direction of learning, that enable children to use one another as learning resources, and that avoid the negative effects of permanent tracking.[20] To accomplish these goals, teachers can add various strategies to their instructional repertoires in mathematics, reading, and writing. Teachers can:

- provide numerous opportunities for teacher/student and student/student discussion about mathematical ideas and their applications, about the meaning of what has been read, and about the meaning of what students write;
- use project-based or team-learning activities, especially those that employ heterogeneous grouping;
- teach explicitly (e.g., by modeling, demonstrating, or explaining) the strategies by which students can monitor their own comprehension, tackle unfamiliar mathematics problems on their own, or carry through writing assignments from the inception of an idea to the completion of a polished draft – thus enabling students to carry out extended tasks under their own direction;
- set up supplemental instructional arrangements (for students who need extra help) that are flexible and integrated into regular classroom instruction whenever possible; and
- allow classroom order to reflect the nature of the academic task at hand – within the bounds of reasonable discipline – rather than maintain tight and consistent control throughout.

Adopting these strategies may mean substantial changes in the ways teachers approach instruction. Cooperative learning arrangements, for example, are successful only when students have been systematically taught the skills of cooperative behavior.[21] Similarly, students will not be able to assume responsibility for their own learning overnight, nor should we expect them to do so. But across instructional units and over a period of time, they can gradually be given more responsibility for directing their own learning as they become better able to apply learning strategies on their own.

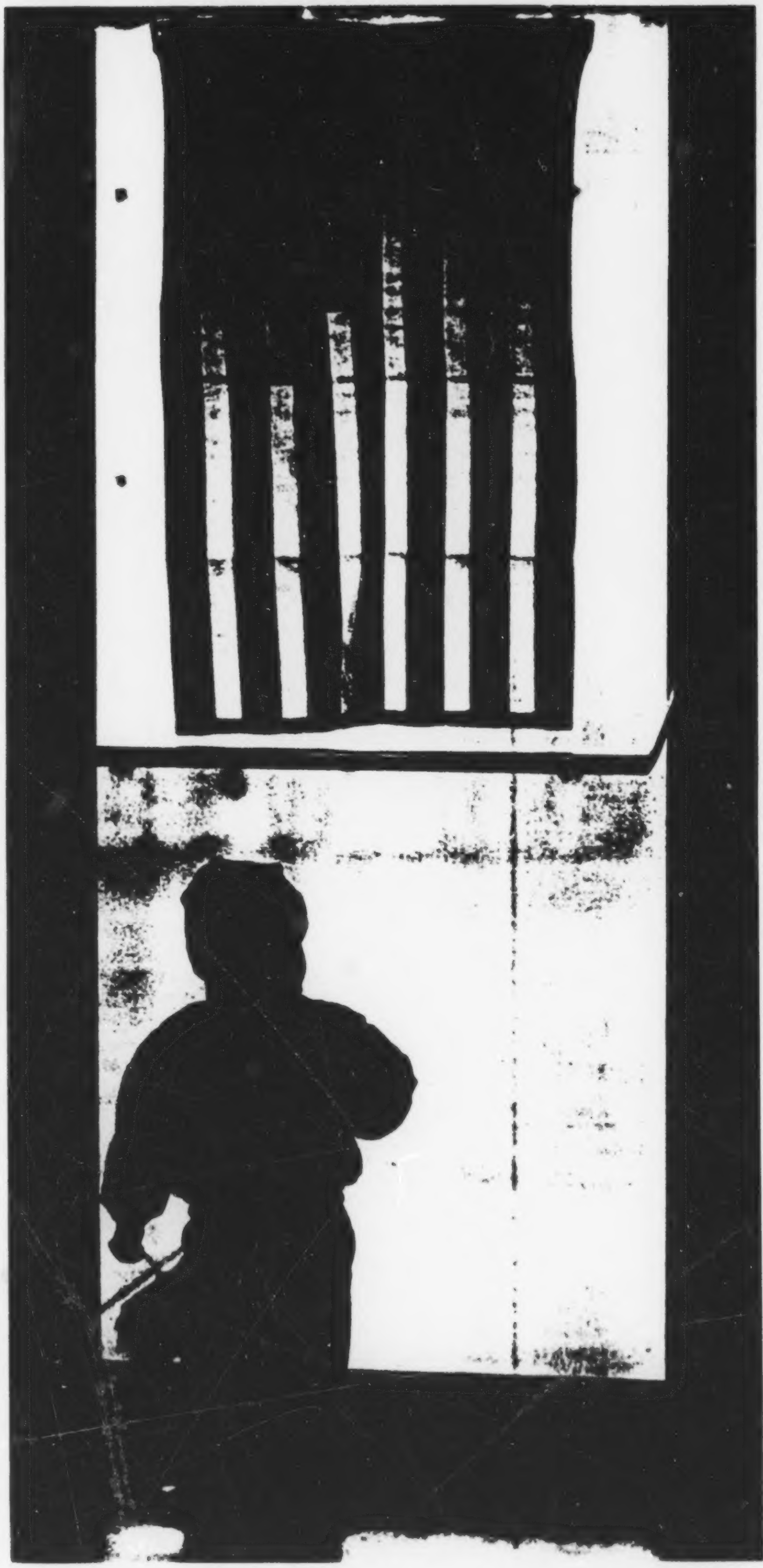
WHERE WE GO FROM HERE

Applying the ideas presented in this article will mean going beyond what is assumed to be "best practice" in many quarters. However, it would be a mistake to take the ideas we have presented here as the "new received wisdom" about appropriate curriculum and instruction for the children of poverty. There is still much to be learned about how to translate these general principles into specific practices that work in various settings. Moreover, that translation will be a long, difficult, and uncertain process.

Transcending current conceptions of best practice means more work both by practitioners and by researchers. Only through a combination of careful documentation, demonstration, natural variation studies, and experimental investigations will researchers, in collaboration with practitioners, be able to extend our understanding of what is possible in working with the children of poverty. Only through constant experimentation and refinement will practicing teachers find ways to adapt challenging and coherent curricula to the variety of classrooms that serve the children of poverty.

The same approach may not work equally well in a rural Appalachian classroom serving poor white children, in an inner-city classroom serving poor black children, and in a classroom serving large numbers of immigrant and refugee children from a variety of language groups. In addition, there is much still to be learned about the environment in which instruction takes place – that is, about the structures of the school and of the teaching profession, about the frameworks of district and state policies, and about the kinds of resources that best support the approaches to instruction that we have been discussing here.

Tackling this ambitious agenda for the future will be worth the effort only if we accept the premise that the children of poverty are capable of more than educators typically expect of them. Evidence to support this premise ranges from advances in understanding student cognition to such dramatic demonstrations of results as the performance of inner-city youths on Advanced Placement tests of calculus.[22] Assuming that this segment



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of the student population is capable of doing more, the ultimate criterion for any changes in current practice is whether they promise to impart to the children of poverty the analytical skills, communicative competence, and general knowledge necessary for full participation in a technological society. To do anything less is to sell these children short.

INSTITUTE FOR THE STUDY OF INNOVATIVE WAYS TO GET GOVERNMENT GRANTS
SCHWADRON

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1. Many of the ideas discussed in this article reflect those contained in papers collected in Michael S. Knapp and Patrick M. Shields, eds., *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom – Volume II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Planning, Budget, and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Education, January 1990). We wish to acknowledge the contributions of members of the Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students and of other scholars who contributed to this collection, in particular: Richard Allington, Jere Brophy, Walter Doyle, Georgia Garcia, Heather McCollum, Curtis McKnight, Luis Moll, Margaret Needels, Barbara Neufeld, David Pearson, Andrew Porter, Walter Secada, Brenda Turnbull, and Andrew Zucker.

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6. See Jean Anyon, "Elementary Schooling and the Distinctions of Social Class," *Interchange*, vol. 12, 1980, pp. 118-32; Robert Calfee, "Curriculum and Instruction: Reading," in Barbara I. Williams, Peggy A. Richmond, and Beverly J. Mason, eds., *Designs for Compensatory Education: Conference Proceedings and Papers* (Washington, D.C.: Research and Evaluation Associates, 1986); and Thomas A. Romberg, "Mathematics for Compensatory School Programs," in idem, pp. IV-3–IV-179. See also Andrew Zucker, "Review of Research on Effective Curriculum and Instruction in Mathematics," in Knapp and Shields, pp. VIII-1–VIII-17; and Michael Knapp and Margaret Needels, "Review of Research on Curriculum and Instruction in Literacy," in idem, pp. IV-1–IV-30.

7. For a review of this evidence, see Heather McCollum, "A Review of Research on Effective Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management Approaches," in Knapp and Shields, pp. XII-1–XII-32.

8. See Andrew Porter, "Good Teaching of Worthwhile Mathematics to Disadvantaged Students," in Knapp and Shields, pp. V-1–V-22; and Walter Doyle, "Classroom Tasks: The Core of Learning from Teaching," in idem, pp. X-1–X-19.

9. Jerrie Cobb Scott, "Nonmainstream Groups: Questions and Research Directions," in Jane L. Davidson, ed., *Counterpoint and Beyond* (Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1988).

10. See Lisa Delpit, "The Silenced Dialogue: Power and Pedagogy in Educating Other People's Children," *Harvard Educational Review*, vol. 58, 1988, pp. 280-98; Shirley Brice Heath, *Ways with Words* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983); and John Ogbu, *Minority Education and Caste: The American System in Cross-Cultural Perspective* (New York: Academic Press, 1978).

11. See James P. Comer, "Educating Poor Minority Children," *Scientific American*, November 1988, pp. 42-48.

12. Signithia Fordham, "Racelessness as a Factor in Black Students' School Success: Pragmatic Strategy or Pyrrhic Victory?," *Harvard Educational Review*, vol. 58, 1988, pp. 54-84; and Maria E. Matute-Bianchi, "Ethnic Identities and Patterns of School Success and Failure Among Mexican-Descent and Japanese-American Students in a California High School: An Ethnographic Analysis," *American Journal of Education*, vol. 95, 1986, pp. 233-55.

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14. See Calfee, op. cit.; and Porter, op. cit.

15. Richard Allington, "Effective Literacy Instruction for At-Risk Children," in Knapp and Shields, pp. I-1–I-19; and Curtis McKnight, "Mathematics Education, the Disadvantaged, and Large-Scale Investigation: Assessment for Stability Versus Assessment for Change," in Knapp and Shields, pp. VII-1–VII-21.

16. Porter, op. cit.

17. Richard C. Anderson et al., *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading* (Urbana: Center for the Study of Reading, University of Illinois, 1985). For applications of such curricula with disadvantaged students, see Georgia Garcia and David Pearson, "Modifying Reading Instruction to Maximize Its Effectiveness for 'Disadvantaged' Students," in Knapp and Shields, pp. II-1–II-23.

18. See Marcia Farr and Harvey Daniels, *Language Diversity and Writing Instruction* (Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1986).

19. See, for example, Sean A. Walmsley and Trudy P. Walp, "Integrating Literature and Composing into the Language Arts Curriculum: Philosophy and Practice," *Elementary School Journal*, January 1990, pp. 251-74.

20. Examples of such alternative approaches to reading instruction are summarized in Garcia and Pearson, op. cit.; to mathematics instruction, in McKnight, op. cit.; and to the management of academic work, in Doyle, op. cit.

21. David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson, "Social Skills for Successful Group Work," *Educational Leadership*, December 1989/January 1990, pp. 29-33.

22. Jay Mathews, *Escalante: The Best Teacher in America* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1988).

The Gender Issue

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The male experience is the standard not only in education but, more generally, in all of public policy. We must change the culture of schools — and the curriculum — to reflect both women's and men's perspectives.

NEL NODDINGS

Feminists often charge that the culture of schools, especially of secondary schools, is masculine (Grumet 1988). It's true that without realizing it, most of us look at gender issues in education with the masculine experience as the standard. What recommendations might emerge if we used the feminine perspective as our standard?

Men's Culture as the Standard

Because white men have long held most of the highly regarded positions in our society, we naturally use their experience when we think about gender, race, or ethnic equality. In an enlightened democracy, we want everyone to have access to the education and jobs formerly held by the favored group. Thus, some years ago, Congress passed legislation designed to provide more nearly equal resources for women's and men's sports in schools.

Considerable attention has also been given to attracting more women to mathematics and science. Indeed, observing a substantial lag between women's and men's participation in mathematics, researchers began to work on "the problem of women and mathematics." They did not ask what women were doing or how they had made their various choices. Rather, they assumed there was something wrong —with either women or schools — because women were not participating as men do in mathematics.

The male experience is the standard not only in education but, more generally, in all of public policy. It is supposed, for example, that women want access to the military and, even, to combat roles, and of course some women do want such access. Most professions monitor the number of women entering and see this number as an important social indicator. For the most part, this attention to equality is commendable, and few of us would suggest relaxing it.

Problems clearly arise, however, as a result of using the male experience as the standard. Law, for example, has long used a "reasonable man" standard to evaluate certain actions. In recent years, bowing to gender sensitivities, the standard has been renamed the "reasonable person" standard. The new title seems to cover men and women equally, but it was developed over many years almost entirely from male experience. Much controversy has arisen around its application to women. Consider one example.

If a man, in the heat of passion, kills his wife or her lover after discovering an adulterous alliance, he is often judged guilty of voluntary manslaughter instead of murder. If, however, the killing occurs after a "reasonable person" would have cooled off, a verdict of murder is more often found.

What happens when we try to apply this standard to women? When a woman kills an abusive husband, she rarely does it in the heat of the moment. Most women do not have the physical strength to prevail in such moments. More often the killing occurs in a quiet time—sometimes when the husband is sleeping. The woman reports acting out of fear. Often she has lived in terror for years, and a threat to her children has pushed her to kill her abuser. Many legal theorists now argue that the reasonable

Instead of asking why women lag behind men in mathematics, we might ask why men lag behind women in early childhood education, nursing, and like activities.

man standard (even if it is called a reasonable person standard) does not capture the experience of reasonable women (Taylor 1986).

Another area of concern to feminists is pregnancy and job leave. If women's lives had been used as the standard from the start, feminists argue, one can be sure that job leaves for pregnancy would have been standard procedure. But because men do not become pregnant and men have devised the standard, women must accept such leaves as a form of sick leave.

Many other examples could be given, but here I want to look at education and raise some questions rarely asked. For example, instead of asking why women lag behind men in mathematics, we might ask the following: Why do men lag behind women in elementary school teaching, early childhood education, nursing, full-time parenting, and like activities? Is there something wrong with men or with schools that this state of affairs persists?

Women's Culture as the Standard

Faced with the questions just asked, it is tempting to answer facilely that "these jobs just don't pay," and of course there is some truth in that. But elementary teaching often pays as well as high school teaching, and yet many more men enter high school teaching. In fact, neither teaching nor nursing pay as poorly as many occupations men enter in considerable numbers.

If we admit that pay is a significant factor, we still have to ask why work traditionally associated with women is so consistently ill paid. Why has so small a value been attached to work we all admit is important? It is hard to escape the conclusion that some men devalue work they have never done

The National SEED Project

CATHY L. NELSON

The National SEED (Seeking Educational Equity and Diversity) Project on Inclusive Curriculum provides K-12 teachers an opportunity to renew their teaching selves and consider what gender-inclusive and multicultural curriculums might look like. The project seeks to engage teachers in curricular and systemic change by bringing issues of race, gender, class, and ethnicity into their classrooms. In seven-day summer workshops, SEED leaders prepare to facilitate monthly three-hour seminars for other teachers during the following school year.

Since 1987, SEED has held seminars led by 198 teachers in 32 states and 7 Asian countries. To date, more than 2,500 educators have participated. Peggy McIntosh, Associate Director of the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, and Emily Style, English teacher and Diversity Coordinator in the Madison, New Jersey, School District, have codirected the project since it began.

At the workshops, project leaders and consultants speak from many disciplines and reflect diverse ethnic backgrounds. Sessions immerse participants in recent scholarship on inclusive education, model teaching strategies to link content and pedagogy, and are grounded in the experiences of participants.

In 1988 I became part of a SEED community of 35 learners who teach. Looking at the textbooks of our lives was essential before imagining school climate and curriculums that would more accurately reflect our diverse world. During our first moments together as a community of scholars/learners, we read aloud our personal versions of Caribbean writer Jamaica Kincaid's "Girl," drawing upon the gendered and remembered voices from our own pasts. The first stories we told were our own. The first voices we heard were our own. Immediately we recognized the authenticity and power of our own lived experiences.

Conversations continued throughout the week, formally and informally. We read and discussed recent scholarship reflecting the interdisciplinary nature of women's and ethnic studies. We were exposed to a growing body of scholarship that calls into question traditional content and practices in schools. Initially overwhelming, the many books, articles, films, and videos shared by the consultants ultimately brought into focus much that my own education had not included.

A particularly useful metaphor developed by Emily Style suggests that an inclusive curriculum provides students with a balance of *windows*—to frame and acknowledge the diverse experiences of others—and *mirrors*—to reflect the reality and validity of each student.[1] My own K-12 education excluded the experiences of women, all people of color, and people with disabilities. Before I could change my own teaching, I had to recognize how entrenched I was in replicating a past that had provided me and most of my students with few windows and mirrors.

themselves and do not wish to do.

If women had set the standard when schools were founded and curriculums designed, what might our students be studying today? Perhaps schools would be giving far more attention to family and developmental studies. It also seems likely that these studies would not be regarded as soft, easy, or merely elective. A rigorous study of infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age would be coupled with a generous amount of supervised practice in care of the young and elderly. The maintenance of caring relationships might be a central topic.

An objection might be raised that these are all matters to be learned at home — not in school. But, given the dramatic changes in social conditions since the end of World War II, fewer children seem to be learning about these subjects adequately. It is questionable whether most ever learned them adequately at home. Family relationships — human relationships — are at the very heart of life, and yet they are considered peripheral to serious learning. With family life at the center of the curriculum, we could teach history, literature, and science more meaningfully than we do now.

Family relationships, human relationships, are at the very heart of life, and yet they are considered peripheral to serious learning.

Seminar leaders shared materials and strategies to facilitate curricular change, including Peggy McIntosh's theoretical work on curriculum[2] and invisible systems of privilege.[3] Experienced project leaders described the various ways they approached their seminars.

When I returned to my school district, we issued an open invitation to our K-12 staff and neighboring district personnel to participate in SEED and provided $1,000 for materials. Twenty teachers responded. Together we rediscovered and reactivated the curious learners within ourselves, giving one another the gift of time for adult conversations and ending our professional isolation.

At the monthly seminars, we expanded the perspectives we bring to our classrooms by looking more closely at the courses we teach. Risk-taking became expected behavior, and we shared how the content and processes are changing in our classrooms.

For example, at one seminar a middle school teacher revealed that the 8th grade English curriculum included no books with female protagonists. That soon changed. Another teacher with a graduate degree in English realized that his own education had never required him to read a book by a woman and only two books by African-American men.

Also, the tradition of discussing people of color only as victims of dominant cultures contrasted sharply with our new understandings, as we read together works by Zora Neale Hurston, Michael Dorris, Ignatia Broker, Amy Tan, James Baldwin, Alice Walker, and other authors of color.

During our discussions, some teachers recalled preservice education programs that had directed them to "select materials boys will read, because girls will read anything." The process of learning to teach inclusively includes *unlearning* as well.

I am proud to be part of a network that respects teachers and regards us as central to improving education. The project has been critical in the process of becoming the teacher I want to be. Perhaps SEED's greatest strength is bringing teachers together in conversation with one another within and across disciplines and districts. At the project's core is a fundamental belief that, given the opportunity, teachers will inspire, motivate, and learn with one another. Trusting the adult learners teachers are. Learning to listen to our own voices as well as others. □

[1] E. Style, (1988), "Curriculum as Window and Mirror." In *Listening for All Voices: Gender Balancing the School Curriculum*, pp. 6-12, (Summit, N.J.: Oak Knoll).

[2] P. McIntosh, (1983), *Interactive Phases of Curricular Re-Vision: A Feminist Perspective*, and (1990), *Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vison with Regard to Race*, (Wellesley College Center for Research on Women Working Papers No. 124 and 219, Wellesley, Mass.).

[3] P. McIntosh, (1988), *White Privilege and Male Privilege: A Personal Account of Coming to See Correspondences Through Work in Women's Studies*, (Wellesley College Center for Research on Women Working Paper No. 189, Wellesley, Mass.).

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A curriculum based on women's experience would occupy volumes, and I obviously cannot present a comprehensive description here. But several large areas of study might be significantly transformed if women's experience were the standard. Before we look at a few, one important caveat should be entered.

Women, like men, are all different. It is misleading to talk of a unitary "women's experience" or "women's culture." Nevertheless, strong central tendencies affect women's experience. Whether or not particular women became mothers or were involved in caregiving occupations, they all faced the expectation that a certain kind of work was appropriate for women. Women's culture has emerged out of these expectations, the work itself, and resistance to it. When I speak of women's culture, I will be referring to this common experience.

It is hard to escape the conclusion that some men devalue work they have never done themselves and do not wish to do.

Education for Citizenship

Usually when someone mentions education for citizenship, we think of courses in civics or problems of American democracy. A "citizen," in one traditional view, is a person of recognized public rank—someone entitled to the "privileges of a freeman."

Learning to take up the duties of a "freeman" is certainly important, and schools have long been charged with promoting this learning.

But there is another side to citizenship. Citizens are also inhabitants of communities, and here their duties are more positive and voluntary than those prescribed by law. Neighborliness, helpfulness, and politeness are all characteristics of people we like to live near. These are all qualities parents, especially mothers, have long tried to inculcate in their children. Given the massive social changes of the last 40 years—among them the reduction in time many mothers have available to teach their children these qualities—it may be that schools need to pay more attention to them.

Another neglected aspect of citizenship is manners. I am certainly not talking about which fork to use for a particular course at dinner, but I do think that we should educate for social life as well as intellectual life. We are alarmed when high school graduates cannot compute simple bills and the change they should expect. We should also be alarmed when they do not know how to dress, speak, or comport themselves in various settings.

Much more can be said on this subject, of course, but my main point is to draw attention to what we see when we consciously use women's culture as the standard for our educational assessments. Looking at citizenship, we see our mutual dependence on neighborliness, the graciousness of good manners, the desirability of good taste. Even when we consider what good citizens must not do, we see that people often refrain from harmful acts because they do not want to hurt their neighbors and because they want their respect. It is not always regard for abstract law that produces acceptable behavior.

Social Consciousness

If women's culture were taken more seriously in educational planning, social studies and history might have a very different emphasis. Instead of moving from war to war, ruler to ruler, one political campaign to the next, we would give far more attention to social issues. Even before women could vote, many were crusaders against child labor, advocates for the mentally ill and retarded, teachers to immigrants, and, more generally, vigorous social reformers. (There are many sources of information on this topic; see, for example, Beard 1972, Brenzel 1983, Kinnear 1982, Smith 1970).

Many well-educated women in the 19th and early 20th century became involved in social issues because these were accepted as "women's work" and because they were unable to obtain positions commensurate with their educations (Rossiter 1982). Today we do not want to restrict women's activities to any particular sphere, but we should not devalue contributions

If women's culture were taken more seriously in planning social studies and history, instead of moving from war to war, we might give far more attention to social issues.

women have made and are continuing to make to improve social conditions. Women's interest, as compared to men's interest, in social issues such as war, poverty, and childcare is revealed in a gender gap (about 20 percent) that still appears in both surveys and votes.

The point here is not so much the conventional one of insisting on the inclusion of women in history texts. More important, we must emphasize for all learners matters that have concerned women for centuries. Many contemporary feminists have this in mind when they suggest using women's culture as a standard for curricular decisions (Martin 1984, Tetreault 1986, Thompson 1986).

Peace Studies

For centuries men have participated in warfare. The warrior has been as central to male culture as motherhood to female culture. It would be untrue, however, to say that men have promoted war and women have resisted it. Women, in fact, have often supported war (Elshtain 1987). But if we look at women's culture and the outstanding women admired within it, we find heroes steadfastly opposed to war. Jane Addams, much loved for her work at Hull House and in other social causes, firmly opposed U.S. participation in World War I. She lost a significant part of her political support as a result.

Women against war. Women tried very hard and very sensibly to stop World War I and to prevent World War II. The Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF) carried a peace proposal to 35 governments, and several male leaders acknowledged the good sense of the proposal — but the war went on. The group tried again at the 1919 Peace Conference to introduce measures designed to prevent a new war. After the second World War, Emily Greene Balch, the first Secretary General of the WILPF, was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Recounting this story, Brock-Utne quotes Gunnar Jahn, Director of the Nobel Institute:

> I want to say so much that it would have been extremely wise if the proposal ... had been accepted by the Conference. But few of the men listened to what the women had to say.... In our patriarchal world suggestions which come from women are seldom taken seriously. Sometimes it would be wise of the men to spare their condescending smiles (1985, p. 5).

And yet, if we consult an encyclopedia published in the late 1940s, we find half-page entries (with pictures) of Generals Pershing and Patton but no entry for Emily Balch.

In discussing citizenship and social consciousness, I've recommended not that we eliminate the male standard and substitute a female one but, rather, that we consider both traditions as we plan curriculum and instruction. On the issue of peace, however, many feminists think that more drastic revision is required. If our children and the world itself are to be preserved, the warrior model has to give way to a model that emphasizes caring relations and not relations of force and domination (Noddings 1989).

The ethics of care. Much is being written today about the ethics of care (Noddings 1984) and maternal thinking (Ruddick 1989). Motherhood has been an important feature of women's traditional culture, and experience in the direct care of children gives rise to interests in their preservation, growth, self-esteem, and acceptance in society. (Not all women have been mothers, of course, and not all mothers have been good mothers, but we select the best thinking and best examples as a standard for educational inclusion.) The logic of motherhood includes "preservative love" (Ruddick 1989), and this love should be in powerful opposition to war. Indeed, as Ruddick and others have described it, world protection—particularly protection from war—is a natural extension of maternal work.

The study of peace must be extended beyond an analysis of nations at war to a careful and continuing study of what it means to live without the fear of violence.

We have to be careful not to oversimplify here. On the one hand, some men have also participated passionately in the quest for peace, but these men's voices have not reflected nor transformed the dominant male culture. On the other, women have often interpreted preservative love as a dedication to safeguarding not just the lives of their own children but a way of life. Preserving a way of life, paradoxically, has meant death for many children. But, despite the empirical fact of some women's support of war, the logic of maternal life is clearly anti-war, and the most eloquent voices of female culture have opposed war. Further, the arguments for peace advanced by women are frequently directly connected to the basic

Given current conditions of poverty, crime, and child-neglect, our society may be ready to raise its evaluation of "women's work."

elements of life—love, birth, nurturing, growing, holding, creating. The distinctiveness of women's arguments and the representativeness of the voice for peace in women's culture suggest a far greater role for a female standard in education.

Women's call for peace is distinctive in another way. Many insist that peace must be studied for itself, not considered simply as the cessation of war. Peace, not war, must become central in our thinking. Further, we must not suppose that the world is "at peace" simply because major nations are not fighting. As long as substantial numbers of people live in daily fear of violence, the world is not "at peace."

Men's violence toward women. For feminists, eliminating the violence women suffer at the hands of men is part of the peace movement. Morgan has written forcefully on the cult of masculinity that maintains this violence — and war and terrorism as well:

> He glares out from the reviewing stands, where the passing troops salute him. He strides in skintight black leather across the stage, then sets his guitar on fire. He straps a hundred pounds of weaponry to his body, larger than life on the film screen. He peers down from huge glorious-leader posters, and confers with himself at summit meetings. He drives the fastest cars and wears the most opaque sunglasses. He lunges into the prize-fight ring to the sound of cheers. Whatever he dons becomes a uniform. He is a living weapon. Whatever he does at first appalls, then becomes faddish. We are told that women lust to have him. We are told that men lust to be him (1989, pp. 24-25).

Both men and women suffer in a culture dominated by such images. A culture that accepts—even admires—such models does not hate war; it only hates to lose wars. It does not abhor violence; it merely deplores the deglamorization of violence.Today such themes must be carefully examined in educational settings.

A New Culture for Schools

What, then, can we do to put some of these concepts into practice? To begin, citizenship education must be broadened to include decent, responsible behavior in personal and family relationships. Both men and women have much to learn in this area. Further, social consciousness should be a central theme in social studies, literature, and science. And the study of peace must be extended beyond an analysis of nations at war to a careful and continuing study of what it means to live without the fear of violence.

Schools must give more attention to issues and practices that have long been central in women's experience, especially to childrearing, intergenerational responsibility, and nonviolent resolution of conflict. Given current conditions of poverty, crime, and child-neglect, our society may be ready to raise its evaluation of "women's work." Using standards that arise in women's culture can guide us in our educational planning toward a more caring community and a safer world. ☐

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Mary Kay Thompson Tetreault

The Journey from Male-Defined [illegible] Gender-Balanced Education

In the early 1970s, when women first became conscious of the need for changes in their education, the structure of society by gender was so pervasive and taken for granted that we were not aware of the need to prefix the term *education* by gender to more accurately convey its contents. We had erroneously used a single universal term when the content should have been more appropriately labeled "male-defined education."[1] Women were anomalous to educational thought. The conceptualization of our educational purposes, students, curricula, pedagogy, and the profession of education all rested on a paradigm in which men, in most instances dominant white men, and traditional male activities were the norm.

The past 15 years have witnessed a shift from male-defined to gender-balanced education.[2] That journey of evolving interpretations can be best understood by considering the social movement for sex equity and the body of new scholarship on women because both have interacted to give us a vision of education that includes us all.[3] Both have their roots in feminism and the women's movement (Biklin & Shakeshaft, 1985; DuBois, Kelley, Kennedy, Korsmeyer, & Robinson, 1985). By juxtaposing the social movement alongside the research, we can capture a fuller picture of the shifts in our interpretations and signal directions for the future. The purposes of this article are to take a retrospective look at the evolving interpretations, examine how the social movement and scholarship have interacted, critique some of the assumptions underlying both, and suggest implications for future action and scholarly inquiry.

Compensatory Education

When we first began to bring women into educational thought, we knew that for many of us, our own educational aspirations had been limited. But it took numerous consciousness raising conversations and the insights of scholars to bring us to that level of awareness. Representative among these early works is Howe's (1971) essay, "Sex Role Stereotypes Start Early," which appeared in *Saturday Review*. Concentrating primarily on the role of the schools, Howe chronicled the process whereby children learn about sex roles. She asked rhetorically, "How much blame should be placed on public education?" and concluded a substantial portion, acknowledging that schools reflect the society they serve.

Simultaneously we became aware that women's earnings, in comparison to men's, had dropped steadily since 1955. There was concern that although the number of working women had increased dramatically, the majority of women were in clerical, sales, service, or plant jobs. A logical first step was to determine if women's inferior economic status was linked to the educational system. Drawing from our own experience and the early research in women's studies, we took an initial look around the schools and were shocked at the sexism we found.

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reflect and perpetuate roles traditionally considered appropriate for females and males, we shattered one of our most cherished myths: that when females and males sit together in the same classrooms, they receive equal schooling. The shattering of this myth led to the formulation of what I label the "compensatory education" phase. In this phase we became conscious of sexist policies and practices in education and advocated that girls be allowed and encouraged to do everything boys do (Frazier & Sadker, 1973; Stacey, Bereaud, & Daniels, 1974). We argued that a major problem for women was gaining access to what men have and that if female students and faculty were treated exactly as male students and faculty, problems of sexual equality would be solved (Howe, 1985).

Our analysis of the problem as the unequal treatment of females, particularly in relation to access, was reflected in both the social movement and the research. Title IX, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex, emerged from Congress in 1972 and by 1975 the regulations governing it were in place. The influence of the access paradigm is apparent in the areas covered in the regulations: the equal treatment of female and male students in student admissions, course assignments, enrollment patterns, counseling, extracurricular activities, and scholarship awards.

Researchers probed deeper into the charge that schools perpetuate traditional sex roles and less favorable treatment of females by conducting studies of curricula, student-teacher interaction, counseling practices, testing, and educational administration. Numerous studies documented how textbooks and instructional materials depicted traditional sex roles and limited what girls could do (Trecker, 1971; Weitzman & Rizzo, 1974; Women on Words and Images, 1972). Other studies reported that teachers and administrators held differential behavioral and academic expectations for females and males and often behaved in ways that reinforce passivity and dependence in females and aggression and independence in males (Good, Sikes, & Brophy, 1973; Levitan & Chananie, 1972; Sears & Feldman, 1966).

Traditional sex-role biases were found to be reflected in many counseling instruments and materials (Astin, 1968; Tittle, McCarthy, & Steckler, 1974). Test content often reflected experiences that traditional social roles have closed to women or discouraged them from exploring. Theories of career development on which many school counseling

marily the experience of white males (Osipow, 1975).

Studies of staffing patterns documented the pervasiveness of male dominance in educational leadership (Clement, 1975; Fischel & Pottker, 1973). Factors suggested as reasons for women's underrepresentation in administrative positions ranged from earlier socialization, career motivation, and family obligations to a focus on organizational constraints, including recruitment, training, informal networks, and sex discrimination (Dias, 1975; Kanter, 1977; Schmuck, 1976).

The combination of these research efforts and the social movement for sex equity has brought about real changes in educational practice in the past 15 years—increased expenditures for women's athletics, a greater number of female students enrolled in science and mathematics courses, a slow but steady increase of women elementary school principals, and sex-fair language and inclusion of missing women in many curriculum materials.

With time, however, the evolving scholarship on women and the social movement for sex equity helped us to understand the complexities of what we were attempting to achieve and led to an essential change in the way we think about women and gender. This paradigmatic shift challenged the view that compensatory education designed to help females attain the same advantages as males embodies an ideal of women's education.

Gender-Balanced Education

An important idea to emerge from feminist scholarship is that women's traditions, history, culture, values, visions, and perspectives, not men's, are the measure of significance. Equally important, a pluralistic conception of women is formulated which acknowledges diversity and recognizes that other variables besides gender shape women's lives; for example, race, ethnicity, and social class. Feminist scholarship focuses on women's experience, which is analyzed within broad social, cultural, historical, political, and economic contexts and allowed to speak for itself. Feminist scholarship is rooted in the personal and the specific; it builds from that to the general (Tetreault, 1985).

When this women-centered research paradigm is applied to the social movement for sex equity, it reveals a central flaw in compensatory education. Men and traditional male activities are the norm. Efforts to gain equal treatment for males and females have focused on access of females to traditional male activities in the public sphere. Implicit in this thinking is the idea that girls need to be socialized into the behaviors of men in the public sphere. This line of thinking does not consciously value and validate what women have traditionally done in the private sphere. Nor does it take into account the extent to which gender is ingrained in our societal structures. It ignores the idea that female and male students may have different educational needs in some areas while in others gender does not matter. It assumes gender is a difference that does not make a difference (Martin, 1984; Thompson, this issue).

The remainder of this article illustrates some of the new challenges the scholarship on women poses for our conceptualization of women; our educational purposes; curricula; students and classroom pedagogy; and the profession of education, including teaching and administration. Also considered are the need to tie social activism and research to an analysis of broader societal and economic issues. Implications for the social movement for sex equity are suggested throughout.

Conceptualizing Women

The implications of a more pluralistic conception of women have been comprehensively detailed in the article, "Achieving Sex Equity for Minority Women" (Lewis et al., 1985). The authors point out how we have conceptualized minority women as a "cohesive, relatively homogeneous subgroup in the American population" (p. 366) when they are in fact a disparate group in terms of geographic location, educational attainment, income, labor force participation, and other factors. This monolithic, unidimensional approach ignores many of the subtle and overt aspects of minority women's status in American society. Viewing them as a monolithic group distorts the actual differences in race, culture, class, language, economic status, political ideology, educational status, and social status not only between minority and majority women but among the various subgroupings of minority women. It does not acknowledge that some of the problems experienced by women are also experienced by men, particularly in the case of minorities.

These insights suggest a multidimensional, rather than a unidimensional approach to equity, which links the social movement for sex equity to "the goals of liberation, survival, and equity for the total target group and sometimes for oppressed people on a global scale" (p. 366). We need to continue to probe the educational implications of minority women's view of inequity as part of and a logical consequence of the inequitable nature of American society, while asking questions about subsets of minority women (Lewis et al., 1985).

Educational Purposes

Martin (1981) discovered the power of male hegemony when she set out to study the place of women in educational thought, and found it was almost nonexistent. In her critique of Rousseau's masterpiece, *Emile*, she noted that educators have implicitly defined their subject matter as the education of male human beings rather than the education of all human beings. She found an essential weakness in our traditional definition of educational purposes as education for the public or productive processes of society—political, economic, legal, social, and cultural activities. This has been to the detriment of education for the reproductive processes of society—the bearing and rearing of children to maturity; the related activities of keeping house, managing a household, and serving the needs and purposes of family members; and engaging in the emotional work that is necessary to human relationships. This emphasis on education for the public or productive processes of society explains why the tasks, duties, traits, and institutions our society has traditionally associated with men have been the subject of education and similarly why those traditionally associated with women have been excluded or devalued.[4]

Martin calls for a redefinition of educational purposes to reintegrate the productive and reproductive processes of society, liberal and vocational education, reason and emotion, rationality and connection, and self and others. This redefinition has profound implications for the social movement for sex equity. We will need to reconstruct our ideal of the educated person (both female and male) and indeed our idea of education to include both the productive and the reproductive processes of society (Martin, 1981, 1982).

Curricula

Howe describes the present period of American women's struggle for education as challenging the male hegemony over curricular content and over the substance of knowledge itself (Boxer, 1982). An essential part of challenging male hegemony over the curriculum is understanding the extent to which women's traditions, history, culture, values, visions, and perspectives have been excluded. Lougee (1981) observes that by definition, the humanities exclude women. From the outset, the ideal of the humanities—to cultivate that which is distinctly human—was implicitly tied to three ideals, which, in their social contexts, effectively precluded women.

First, the idea of the humanities was tied to civic life and leadership in the public arena. Second, the humanistic ideal is based on human expression as embodied in "great works" meeting agreed-upon criteria of excellence as represented in the formal genres of drama, poetry, and painting. Third, the humanities have been tied to an ideal of human commonality, a unitary image based on the ideal of the cultivated, educated gentleman. Since women were excluded from public life by law and tradition until very recently and historically expressed themselves through different genres, the record of female life in the past is ignored.

Lougee (1981) proposes to broaden the definition of the humanities to include private as well as public genres of expression that represent not only superior models of artistic expression but also works that provide insight into many aspects of human experience. She challenges us to accept a pluralistic conception of the humanities instead of a unitary conception, "a dialectic between the one and the many, the common and the special . . ." (p. 6).

Once we conceptualize curricula and knowledge pluralistically to incorporate women, we know that what we have been taught to value—the public sphere or traditional male sphere—cannot be understood in isolation but must be seen as part of a continuum along with that which we have been taught to devalue—the private sphere or traditional female sphere (McIntosh, 1983). Our new sense of their dynamic relationship pushes us to explicate the interactions between the two.

When this scholarship is brought to curricular considerations, it illuminates the gains we have made toward incorporating women and issues of gender and signals some new directions for social action. Examples drawn from textbooks in American history and career and vocational education programs illustrate this point. The results of earlier efforts to persuade publishers to incorporate women can be seen in American history textbooks. As recommended, publishers have depicted women in non-traditional female roles—outstanding women who contributed in areas or movements traditionally dominated by men or an extension of women's traditional nurturing roles. The oppression of women and their efforts to overcome that oppression, particularly through the women's rights movement, is emphasized. A close look at these additions, however, reveals that women have been added into a history which continues to be defined by men's values, visions, and perspectives. Women have merited historical discussion only when they have managed to step outside their prescribed role and enter the world of men to engage in traditional masculine concerns such as obtaining the vote.

In order to elicit the positive and essential ways women have functioned in history, we must now ask textbook authors to pay attention to the content of women's everyday lives by including women's reproductive work within the home—childbearing, childrearing, and housework. Textbooks must document women's efforts to break out of their traditional sphere of the home in a way that uses women's activities, not men's, as the measure of historical significance. This includes women's education, paid work outside the home, and volunteer work, particularly in women's clubs and associations. Of equal importance is the development of a collective feminist consciousness, including ordinary and outstanding women's awareness of their own distinct role in society (Tetreault, 1986).

Our conceptualization of career and vocational education has now expanded beyond compensatory education for females to include the incorporation of traditional female qualities—"altruism, a sense of responsibility to reduce the troubles of society and reciprocity" (Farmer, 1985, p. 315)—into our models of achievement motivation. An acknowledgment of the need to prepare both female and male students for work in *both* the productive and reproductive spheres is central to research and curricular development in the field (Farmer, 1985; Farmer & Sidney, 1985). To this phase we are able to bring a more sophisticated understanding of the relationship between human qualities and gender. We now understand the extent to which traditional female and male traits are "gendered," that is, appraised differently when possessed by males and females (Martin, 1982).

Students and Classroom Pedagogy

Feminist critics of theories of human development, most particularly psychologists Gilligan (1982) and Chodorow (1978), have enabled us to see the extent to which our conception of human development has implicitly reflected male development. They add the important insight that the male experience cannot be generalized to the female experience. Because of early social development, boys and girls arrive at puberty with a different interpersonal orientation and range of social experiences. In this feminist schema of human development, girls' different ordering of priorities—attention to what others think, ability to empathize, and a sense of responsibility toward others—is viewed not as a developmental deficiency to be overcome but as a strength to be nurtured in *both* females and males.

The implications of this developmental theory are far-reaching. First, as we broaden our conceptualization of the student to include females as well as males, we recognize the snares in overgeneralizing and the importance of taking variables like race, ethnicity, social class, and sexual orientation into account. Likewise, we come to understand the importance of analyzing social context, past experiences, thoughts and anxieties about the future, anticipations about others' reactions, ideas and prejudices, and bodily state. It becomes necessary to let students' experiences speak for themselves and to pay attention to the personal and the specific. We need to change one of our essential questions about sex equity, "What impression does viewing the human experience from primarily a male perspective—with the authority of the school behind it—make on our students?" to the question, "What impression would viewing the human experience from primarily a female perspective—with the authority of the school behind it—make on our students?"

An example of current research that draws upon students' experiences is a study investigating school knowledge, work, and modes of pedagogy in elementary schools in contrasting social class contexts. One hundred fifth-grade girls and boys were interviewed to find out what they thought about their school experiences, teachers, present lives, and futures. Responses to the questions suggest that most of the children perceived conflicts between a girl's future role as a wife and working at a job, but that "most girls are not passive victims of sex-role stereotyping and expectations but are active participants in their own development" (Anyon, 1984, p. 44). Other research challenging the idea that girls internalize what schools teach has been done in England. Through interviews, researchers learned that girls are discriminating in what they take from school and that those who did well ignored the messages and learned what they chose. The girls also functioned as a support group for one another, encouraging one another to succeed (Fuller, 1984; Weiner, 1985).

Feminist educators are beginning to explore the implications of this multi-focal, gender-balanced view of human development for pedagogy. Educators were more at ease with the dominant pedagogical style of (a) lecturing, with the teacher as authority and students as empty vessels, and (b) competitive interaction geared to reaching objective truth and a single right answer when subject matter was defined as the education of male human beings for the public sphere (Maher, 1985; Schniedewind, 1983; Schuster & Van Dyne, 1985). A recognition of the diversity in humans leads to what Maher (1985) calls an interactive pedagogy in which the active participation of all students is necessary to provide multiple viewpoints. Instead of a competitive search for the objective view, a collaborative, evolutionary, and complementary approach is taken in which students recognize the validity of their own perceptions in interpreting reality. Teachers and students become collaborators in searching for understandings about their world.

The Profession of Education

The challenge feminist scholars have posed to the profession of education is to treat gender as a problematic area for study rather than as part of the natural order of things. One study turned a familiar fact into a historical puzzle by asking how and why teaching went from a predominantly male to a female profession and why men manage schools when 85 percent of public school teachers are women. The authors considered four factors while solving their historical puzzle: labor supply and demand, cultural values, organizational changes, and changes in the family. By linking their analysis to larger societal issues and women's subordinate position in society, they were able to challenge the "natural" structuring of employment by sex in public education (Strober & Tyack, 1980).

Others are asking what it means for an occupation to be labeled "women's work." They question labeling "women's professions" as semi-professions and point out that the literature on teaching commonly brings a male model of professionalism to the analysis (Acker, 1983; Mitrano, 1978). For instance, women interested in teaching are criticized for bringing "such damning characteristics as altruistic motivations, desires for pleasant social relationships with colleagues, and preferences to work with people rather than things" to professional life (Acker, 1983, p. 125). Women are often discussed primarily in relation to their family roles and blamed for deviating from the norms of male occupations.

A woman-defined perspective on the profession is emerging which depicts how women who are teachers view their work, what they value and criticize about their occupation, and how they negotiate their work interests with sex role and family expectations (Biklin, 1983; Freedman, Jackson, & Boles, 1983). Biklin's account of the lives of elementary teachers generated four themes: teachers' understanding of the nature of their careers; the importance of autonomy in their work lives; their need for a sense of community among colleagues; and their methods for resolving conflicts. She concludes that our understanding of teachers' lives have been limited by our stereotypical assumptions about the nature of women and that they are not the compliant teachers some researchers suggest. Teachers are concerned about the low status of teaching and wish for greater recognition for their work.

The Boston Women's Teachers' Group is a group of teachers studying the effects of teaching on teachers through their professional careers. They ground their analysis of teaching on the belief that who and what they are is worthy of serious consideration. Their analysis of teaching has led to an explication of some of the main conflicts inherent in public education. For instance, teachers work in an institution that supposedly prepares its clients for adulthood, but that views those entrusted with this task, the teachers themselves, as incapable of mature judgment (Freedman et al., 1983).

Conclusions

This retrospective look at the journey from male-defined to gender-balanced education reveals the way the scholarship on women has interacted with the social movement for sex equity. The two reveal themselves to be of a whole cloth. By examining this double root of feminist education, we can see how we have moved beyond a male-centered paradigm to one which places women and gender at the center of our work. At its core is a pluralistic conception of women (and men) that acknowledges diversity and recognizes that other variables besides gender, such as race, ethnicity, and social class, shape people's lives.

The urgent need to bring the insights from gender-balanced education to bear on educational issues is demonstrated when one analyzes recent education reform books, reports, and proposals (see, for example, Adler, 1983; Goodlad, 1984; Lightfoot, 1983; National Commission, 1983; Sizer, 1984; Task Force, 1983; and Twentieth Century Fund, 1983) in relation to issues of gender. Prepared by influential policy groups and prominent educators, the proposals carry weight with the educational community and the public. The philosophical assumption undergirding the reports—that significant reform is needed in our conceptualization of elementary, secondary, and higher education—makes it particularly important that questions of gender be considered.

Regrettably, however, these books and reports represent male-defined education. The new scholarship on women, with the exception of a footnote in one book, is never mentioned. Even Title IX, our major federal sex equity law, was mentioned by only one of the authors. Considerations of gender and schools' purposes were absent in all but two books (Lightfoot, 1983; Sizer, 1984).

The authors' vision of reformed education continues to fix students in education primarily for the productive processes of society. Despite the last decade of scholarship, legislation, and action for sex equity in schools, the authors continue to perceive school purposes as "gender-neutral," with little or no consciousness of the extent to which gender is embedded in the structure of schools (Tetreault & Schmuck, 1985).

The possibilities the scholarship on women holds for educational and social reform can be seen when we return to our concerns about women's inferior economic status and our educational system. An initial response to women's inferior economic status was to urge that girls be given access to the same opportunities in education and employment available to boys. In the past few years, however, economists have pointed out that the social movement for equal access failed to take certain economic realities into account. Although increasing numbers of women have entered traditional male professions, the majority of women continue to work in lower paying traditional female occupations.

With the potential of benefits to even larger groups of women, people have begun to ask why "women's jobs" have been regarded as being lesser value than "men's jobs." The concept of comparable worth, which holds that jobs requiring comparable skills and involving comparable responsibilities should be considered of equal value, presents far-reaching implications for how we think about sex equity, women's traditional occupations, women's secondary work status, and the redistribution of wages. Economists are now examining the nature of jobs and seeking to array them differently rather than only asking how we can change the gender distribution within a particular occupation. Teachers, too, need to educate students to value women's traditional work and to prepare both males and females to engage in reproductive work.

We are too involved in developing new concepts to see the limitations in this phase of feminist education. But it is clear that it will be more challenging and difficult than our efforts in gaining access to men's opportunities. We are asking for more fundamental change when we call for a redefinition of education for both the productive and reproductive processes of society, gender-balanced curricula, and treatment of gender issues as a social and cultural construction rather than a biological given. We also need to face the challenge of evolving a gender-sensitive education. As Martin (1984, 1985) has observed, taking gender into account when it makes a difference to education and ignoring it when it does not would neither imprison women in gender nor make women the victims of a mistaken gender blindness.

We have begun to analyze the relationship between sex equity in education and sex equity in society as demonstrated in the *Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity Through Education* (Klein, 1985). It is now incumbent on us to probe and analyze the interactive nature of the oppressions of racial, ethnic, cultural, economic, and sex inequity in society as well as education. A liberal, reformist approach does not probe the needs of the system that are being satisfied by oppression. We have to take seriously the model of feminist scholarship that analyzes women's status within the social, cultural, historical, political, and economic contexts. Only then will issues of gender be understood in relation to the economic needs of both patriarchy and capitalism which undergird such oppressions.[5]

We also need to transcend educational levels as we engage in research and social action projects. In the past 10 years we have witnessed the disappearance of most women's studies courses at the secondary level and, at the same time, a dramatic increase in women's studies programs and courses at the college level. Why is this? How can the gains in higher education be used for the benefit of elementary and secondary education? This question suggests possible collaborative research and social action projects among feminists at all levels of education.

The recent United Nations Decade for Women, which ended with the 1985 conferences in Nairobi, is a reminder that we must broaden our scholarship and social movement to incorporate international perspectives. This more global perspective will push us to new understandings of liberating both women and men in diverse situations and cultures.

Notes

1. I am indebted to Elizabeth Minnich for the idea of prefixing, which she developed at a symposium on general studies at Lewis and Clark College, November, 1983.
2. Gender-balanced education is an education which includes the experiences, perspectives, and voices of women as well as men. It examines the similarities and differences between women and men but also considers how gender interacts with such factors as race and class.
3. When I refer to the social movement for sex equity I include grass roots efforts by parents, educators, and citizens to raise our consciousness about the unequal treatment of females and males in the schools; legislation and policy, particularly Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments; and the work of Title IX coordinators, administrators, teachers, parents, and activists to provide access to educational opportunities for both females and males.
4. For additional discussion of this topic see Thompson, this issue.
5. I am grateful to Patti Lather for this emphasis (Lather, personal correspondence, September 10, 1985).

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RESEARCH SUMMARIES

This Research Summary reports the changing needs of beginning teachers as identified through their support requests during their first year in an induction program.

Functional Approach to Identification of New Teacher Needs in an Induction Context

INTRODUCTION

The paramount objective of teacher induction programs is to meet the needs of new teachers as they begin teaching in a school system. This is most often accomplished by assigning veteran classroom teachers as support teachers who will offer structured assistance to new teachers (Wagner, 1985). Several issues arise in establishing a teacher induction program, such as what the characteristics of the support teacher should be, and whether the support teacher should evaluate as well as assist new teachers (Huffman & Leak, 1986; Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986). However, no issue is more salient than identifying what assistance the support teachers should offer to new teachers.

It is generally agreed that the nature of the support offered to new teachers should be consonant with their needs (Fox & Singletary, 1986). This implies that a valid

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and reliable approach exists for identifying new-teacher needs. In practice, new-teacher needs have most often been identified by asking beginning teachers in interviews or questionnaires to specify what problems they experienced during their first year of teaching (Veenman, 1984).

The questionnaire approach has been successful in chronicling the problems most often perceived by beginning teachers (e.g., disciplining students and dealing with individual differences). However, this approach has the disadvantage of being static and retrospective. That is, it does not continuously track how new-teacher needs change dynamically across time, nor does it provide a contemporaneous description of teacher needs that can be used to specify current assistance needed by new teachers. The questionnaire approach also has the drawback of yielding self-report data that may be unreliable.

FUNCTIONAL PROCEDURE FOR DEFINING FIRST YEAR TEACHER NEEDS

A functional approach to defining areas of support appropriate for first-year teachers has been described by Odell (1986b). This approach is characterized by empirically observing the actual functioning of an induction-support program and inferring new-teacher needs from the observed behaviors of beginning teachers and support personnel. The functional approach has the advantages of being dynamic and contemporaneous. It reflects the changing support needed as the development of the new teacher evolves, and it provides current information on which to base the delivery of induction support.

In the first functional determination of new-teacher needs (Odell, 1986b), support teachers continuously recorded the specific induction assistance they offered in response to their perceptions of the needs of new teachers. The greatest new-teacher needs inferred from the assistance offered concerned obtaining resources and materials, receiving information regarding instructional processes, and learning about the school system per se. These functionally-identified needs differ considerably from the primary needs most often identified via questionnaires (e.g., classroom management, discipline).

The present research extends the functional approach to identifying new-teacher needs by observing what questions new teachers ask of support personnel in a teacher-induction context across their first year of teaching. The empirical inference is that there is a concordance between the help asked for by new teachers and their actual needs for help.

GATHERING NEEDS DATA THROUGH BEGINNING TEACHERS' QUESTIONS

The data were obtained within the context of a large-scale elementary school teacher-induction program in which the school district releases nine veteran classroom teachers to serve as full-time, non-evaluative support teachers for all first-year teachers in the district (Odell, 1986a). Each support teacher was assigned approximately 18 client teachers distributed across about eight elementary schools from the 73 elementary schools in the district.

Two of the beginning teachers assigned to each of the nine support teachers were randomly selected for inclusion in the research. The resultant 18 new teachers consisted of two males and 16 females, and were arrayed across kindergarten through fifth grades in 18 different schools. Each of these new teachers was visited in the classroom about once a week across the school year by the support teacher. Subsequent to the visit, the support teacher recorded all the questions asked by the new teacher.

The obtained questions data were used to derive seven generalized categories of needed induction support. The support categories derived were nonoverlapping and encompassed all the questions asked by the first-year teachers. The categories of support are functionally described, along with example new-teacher questions, in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Descriptions of Categories of Support Derived from Questions Asked by First-Year Teachers

Support Category	Description	Example Question
Instructional	Giving information about teaching strategies, the instructional process, or content	How do I utilize math manipulative materials?
System	Giving information related to procedures and guidelines of the school district	What tests does the district require I give children?
Resource	Collecting, disseminating, or locating resources for use by the new teacher	Where do I find a terrarium for the science center?
Emotional	Offering new teachers personal support through empathic listening and by sharing experiences	How do I learn to be a good teacher and also have a life outside the classroom?
Managerial	Managing and organizing the school day	How should I organize my week?
Parental	Giving help and ideas related to conferencing or working with parents	How do I tell parents their child is not doing well?
Disciplinary	Giving guidance and ideas related to managing children	What do I do? The kids are wild, and I'm desparate.

During the course of the school year, the nine support teachers recorded 1,143 questions as asked by the 18 first-year teachers. So as to discern the needs of the new teachers from the questions they asked, each question was assigned to one of the seven derived categories of induction support. The categorized questions were then compared across support teachers and across grade levels of the first-year teachers. No bias attributable to support teachers was observed. Likewise, there were no systematic trends in the questions asked as a result of the new-teachers' grade levels. Accordingly, the questions asked by all 18 teachers were collapsed together by month of the school year and are presented in Table 2.

On the average the 18 new teachers asked about 127 questions each month, which approximates 1.8 requests for specific help per support teacher visit. Table 2 shows that of the monthly questions asked, the highest mean number (44.4) was in the instructional support category. That is, fully 35% of all new-teacher questions per-

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TABLE 2

Number of Monthly Questions Asked in Each Support Category by 18 First-Year Teachers Along with the Mean and Percentage of Total Questions Asked for the Nine-Month School Year.

Support	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Mean	%
Instructional	57	52	37	31	38	64	58	41	22	44.4	35
System	32	12	16	15	20	26	21	58	35	26.1	20.6
Resource	35	22	17	9	16	21	11	24	11	18.4	14.5
Emotional	25	14	17	11	12	11	13	13	16	14.7	11.6
Managerial	16	10	5	6	18	5	4	6	11	9.0	7.1
Parental	11	14	16	4	6	2	8	7	2	7.8	6.1
Disciplinary	11	7	6	7	14	6	2	2	4	6.6	5.2

tained to the instructional process or to teaching strategies.

An analysis of variance on the number of questions asked in each category across months yielded a highly significant effect of support category ($F_{6,56} = 24.05$, $p < .01$). A Tukey's procedure (critical difference = 11.91) applied to these data in order to compare differences among the individual categories showed that the instructional support category was significantly higher than all of the other categories in terms of the numbers of questions asked.

Questions pertaining to procedures and expectations of the school system accounted for another 20% of all the questions asked. As will be discussed subsequently, this category may have been somewhat inflated due to the wide publicity given to the state legislature's actions on public school reform, including the removal of teacher tenure, and a threatened rift of all first-year teachers by the school district. Nevertheless, this support category did not contain significantly more questions than the next two categories: questions pertaining to obtaining resources and materials needed for teaching, and questions asking the support teacher for personal or emotional support.

The final three categories of managerial, parental, and disciplinary support were not significantly different from one another in terms of the numbers of first-year teachers' questions. However, as noted above, there were significantly fewer questions asked in these three categories than in the instructional and systems support categories.

While the differences among the seven categories are clearly reflected in the overall means and percentages of questions asked, much more dynamic information can be obtained by inspecting the month by month changes within each category, and by comparing among categories within each month. For example, by looking at the data for the individual months in Table 2, it can be seen that instructional related questions were variable from month to month but still constituted the first or second most frequent category of questions asked each month. Clearly, obtaining instructional support is a consistent need of the new teacher throughout the first year of teaching.

Systems information and obtaining resources were both particularly important to the new teacher during the first month of school. Thereafter, resource needs continued at a moderately high level for the remainder of the year. The need for systems information declined until after January, when the state legislature began discussing public school reform, and peaked in April when first-year teachers were told that they may be the recipients of "pink slips" terminating their employment for the next year.

The particulars of these latter administrative actions are of importance herein only in that they confirm the sensitivity of the functional approach in defining teacher needs as they emerge continuously throughout the first year of teaching in response to professional, personal, and in the instance of systems support, to situational pressures and demands. In this context, it is interesting to note that the demand for personal support was reasonably high the first month of school and continued as a consistent and moderately intense need for the entire school year. Clearly any induction support program should not focus purely on the professional aspects of teaching, the teacher has strong emotional and interpersonal needs that seek fulfillment as well.

Managing and organizing the school day was a particular need that merited support at three points in the school year: at the beginning of each semester, in September and January, and at the end of the school year, in May. The need for disciplinary support was also cyclic in that it seemed particularly relevant only at the start of each semester and was only infrequently the topic of the new teachers' questions as the school semesters wore on. Finally, the need of the new teacher to have help in working with parents seems to have remained strong only through the end of the first set of parent conferences in November, abating thereafter even in the face of subsequent parent conferences.

Taken all together, the more fine-grained data show that the priorities for all types of support are highest during the first month of teaching. Thereafter, the need for instructional, resource, and emotional support remain constant; the need for managerial and disciplinary support decrease until the next beginning at the start of the second semester; parental support is needed only until the first parent meetings are held; and, the need for systems support may be dictated by the ebb and flow of pressures both internal and external to the school system.

COMPARING NEW TEACHERS' NEEDS AS GATHERED BY DIFFERENT APPROACHES

The top three needs of new teachers in an induction context appear to be the need for help with teaching strategies in the instructional process, to obtain fundamental information about the school district, and to obtain resources and materials pertinent to the information to be taught. These needs, identified from the questions asked by new teachers, are in agreement with the needs identified previously from the observed support actually offered in an ongoing teacher induction program (Odell, 1986b). The correspondence between these two sets of identified needs is heartening in that it suggests that functionally identified needs have generality across new teachers, support teachers, and behavioral observations used to assess the needs.

As might be inferred from the several descriptions of the perils of being a first-year teacher trying to survive in the classroom (Grant & Zeichner, 1981; Lortie, 1975; McDonald, 1980), emotional support seems to be a consistent need of first-year teachers. What is interesting, however, is that the need for emotional support is secondary to the needs for teaching help and administrative information. It may be that this is because the needs identified in the present research were specified in an induction context. The induction support provided in instructional areas may itself lessen the new teachers' need for emotional support.

A striking difference emerges between the needs of beginning teachers identified functionally and those identified by the use of questionnaires regarding the importance of disciplinary support. While the current data suggest that disciplinary support is of some importance at the beginning of each semester, the functionally identified need for disciplinary support never emerges as a strong one. On the other hand, disciplinary support often ranks as the highest perceived need for beginning teachers when assessed through retrospective self-report. It may be that discipline problems are perceived to be more important than they actually are because it is easier for new teachers to articulate the problems of managing others than it is to articulate one's own lack of personal competence in instructional methodologies or in obtaining teaching resources. This self-efficacy bias is not inherent in the questions first-year teachers ask nor in the induction context per se. In any event, the present research clearly demonstrates that disciplinary support is by no means the most important need of first-year teachers in an induction program.

CONCLUSION

The most noteworthy aspect of the functional approach to identifying teacher needs, which is demonstrated by the present data, is the sensitivity of this approach to the changing needs of the first-year teacher throughout the school year. The questions asked by beginning teachers seem eminently sensitive to the demands placed on them by their students' needs, by the school year calendar, and by parents and administrators. Through tracking the rise and fall of the teachers' several needs, the assistance offered to new teachers can be made precisely appropriate to their contemporary needs. Thus, the content of teacher induction programs can be made reactive rather than proscriptive and, to the extent that individual teacher needs are identified, it can be individualized for a particular first-year teacher. Given the obtained data, it would be appropriate to offer support first in managing a classroom and managing children followed by brief training in parent conferencing and then to focus heavily on instruction and resource support while maintaining a constant level of interpersonal support. Finally, a support program will do well to retain the flexibility to fulfill the needs for systems information as engendered by events external to the classroom or school.

Future outcome research will assess the efficacy of teacher induction programs in improving the teachers in our schools. The present data demonstrate that it will be important in interpreting these program assessments to determine whether the induction program provides support which is sensitive to the evolving needs of new teachers.

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4. CHARACTERISTICS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS IN AN INDUCTION CONTEXT*

by Sandra J. Odell

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Structured teacher induction programs have emerged across the country. Eleven states have mandated induction programs for all school districts, and 21 other states are either piloting or planning statewide induction efforts (Hawk and Robards 1987). As induction programs continue to emerge, it becomes increasingly important to characterize fully the beginning teacher within an induction context.

Our previous research has been directed toward identifying those needs that are unique to beginning teachers undergoing induction to the teaching profession. This has been accomplished by observing the actual functioning of an elementary induction support program (Odell 1986b), by recording the questions new elementary teachers ask of induction support personnel across their first year of teaching (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987), and by identifying the developmental level of teaching for new teachers using a Stages of Concerns questionnaire (Odell 1987). In general, this research has served to characterize the evolution of the new teacher and tentatively to define the types of support needed in the induction of developing teachers.

The present research used the interview method to describe further the characteristics of new elementary teachers in an induction context. In particular, the research was designed (1) to reveal new teacher motivations, attitudes, and expectations; (2) to identify the concerns of beginning teachers and the support personnel most helpful to beginning teachers; (3) to assess the impact of the teaching context on the first year of teaching; and (4) to reveal what changes in teacher practice new teachers would make in a new year.

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*The author expresses her appreciation to the clinical support teachers, especially Nancy Cole and Shirley McGuire, who collected and helped analyze data for this study and, importantly, who helped the first-year teachers to become better instructional leaders.

PROCEDURE

The data were obtained within the context of a large-scale elementary school teacher induction program that is a collaborative effort between a college of education and a major school district (Odell 1986a). The subjects were 18 teachers, 16 females, and 2 males, who were drawn randomly from 180 first-year elementary teachers receiving weekly induction support from 9 clinical support teachers. The clinical support teachers were veteran classroom teachers who were released from classroom duties in order to work full time assisting the 180 beginning teachers. The 18 beginning teachers chosen for this study were all recent graduates holding baccalaureate degrees in elementary education.

During the course of the school year, the clinical support teachers administered an interview three times to the 18 beginning teachers: during the first two weeks of school, after the midyear holiday break, and in the last month of school. On the average, an interview took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

The interview consisted of seven open-ended questions that were read to the beginning teachers by a clinical support teacher. Four of the seven questions were asked in each of the three interviews, while the remaining three questions varied across the interviews. Each of the resultant interview questions was assumed to access one of the following seven characteristics: teacher motivation, teacher attitude, new teacher expectations, new teacher needs, sources of new teacher support, the impact of the teaching context, or teaching practice. The verbatim interview questions and teaching characteristics are listed in Table 1. Teacher responses to questions related to new teacher challenges/concerns were further subdivided into seven categories of needed support based on those used in a previous study, as shown in Table 2 (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987).

The interviews were tape-recorded for later transcription and analysis. Teacher responses to the questions as recorded and transcribed were then tallied using verbatim phrases so as to create a description of new teachers in an induction context.

RESULTS

In order to summarize the responses to the teacher motivation, teacher attitude, teacher expectation, sources of new teacher support, teaching context, and teaching practice questions, the percentage of subjects giving a particular response was determined.

With respect to teacher motivation, during Interview I, nine different reasons were given by the 18 subjects for becoming a teacher. Enjoyment of children or school was cited by 66.7 percent of the new teachers, and

Table 1
Teaching Characteristics Accessed by Individual Interview Questions During Interviews, I, II, or III

Teaching Characteristics	Interview Questions
Motivation	
Interview I	Why did you decide to become a teacher?
Attitude	
Interview II	How do you feel about your decision to become a teacher?
Interview III	If you had it to do over again, would you decide to become a teacher?
Teacher practice	
Interview III	What would you do differently in a new year?
Challenges	
Interviews I, II	Currently, what are your biggest challenges?
Support personnel	
Interviews, I, II	Who has been helpful in dealing with the challenges?
Interviews I, II, III	Who has been the most helpful so far?
Concerns	
Interviews I, II, III	What concerns you the most right now?
Expectations	
Interviews I, II, III	In what ways has teaching been similar to or different from what you expected?
Context	
Interviews I, II, III	What about this school or community makes teaching particularly easy or difficult?

was the most frequently cited motivation. Wanting to be a teacher since childhood was mentioned by 22.2 percent and 16.7 percent mentioned being motivated by previous teachers of their own. The remaining responses were more individualistic and followed no discernible trend.

In general, the new teacher attitude questions revealed that the new teachers had very positive feelings about teaching. In Interview II, teachers were asked how they felt about their decision to be a teacher. All teachers but one responded positively with comments such as: "feels good," "right choice," "enjoy the profession," and "satisfied." The one other teacher said that she felt "good and bad depending on the day." Interview III revealed a similarly positive attitude about teaching, with 100 percent of the new teachers saying that they would decide to be

Table 2
Categories of Needed Support Used to Characterize Challenges and Concerns of New Teachers

Example Challenge/ Concern	Needed Support Category	Description of Support Category
Individualizing math activities	Instruction	Giving information to new teachers about teaching strategies
Meeting administrative expectations	System	Giving information to new teachers related to procedures and guidelines of the school district
Accumulating teaching materials	Resource	Collecting, disseminating, or locating resources for use by new teachers
Surviving the first year	Emotional	Offering new teachers personal support through empathic listening and by sharing experiences
Time allocation for instruction	Managerial	Helping new teachers manage and organize the school day
Dealing with parental expectations	Parental	Giving new teachers help with ideas related to conferencing with parents
Maintaining control	Discipline	Giving new teachers ideas related to managing children

a teacher if they had it to do over again. The expanded answers to this question, such as "Teaching is challenging," "I love working with the kids," and "I find teaching rewarding," also suggested uniformly positive attitudes about teaching.

The teacher expectation question revealed that subjects more often say that teaching is different than they expected than they say that it is the same as expected. Specifically, responses that teaching is different than expected encompassed 88.5 percent, 94.4 percent, and 76.2 percent of all the expectation responses in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. Subjects were less consistent regarding the particular ways that teaching is different than they expected. In Interview I, 33 percent of the subjects said that teaching is more difficult than they expected, and 16.7 percent listed classroom management as different than expected. The remaining responses specifically identifying the ways that teaching is different were quite variable and mentioned by only one new teacher. In Interview II, 16.7 percent of the subjects listed time management as more difficult than expected. In Interview III, 16.7 percent of the subjects responded that the work was harder than expected. All other responses to the expectation question in Interviews II and III were completely individual and demonstrated no particular pattern of response.

Sources of support for new teachers were determined through two questions in Interviews I and II and through one question in Interview III. In response to the question of who has been helpful in dealing with challenges and concerns faced by the new teachers, colleague teachers were identified by 58.4 percent, 55.6 percent, and 50 percent of the subjects, clinical support teachers were identified by 44.7 percent, 58.3 percent, and 83.3 percent of the subjects, and principals were listed by 13.9 percent, 13.9 percent, and 33.3 percent of the subjects in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. Several other sources of support in dealing with concerns and facing challenges were identified but were listed by no more than one subject. There was a tendency, however, to list family members such as mother, spouse, and brother.

The impact of the teaching context on teaching was explored in all three interviews by asking teachers whether there was anything about their school or community that makes teaching particularly easy or difficult. In all three interviews, responses included factors that make teaching difficult. Parent or family difficulties comprised 36 percent of the 14 factors listed in Interview I, 46 percent of the 13 factors listed in Interview II, and 100 percent of the seven factors listed in Interview III. No other factors related to difficulty were listed more than once. In terms of the factors that make teaching particularly easy, the modal factor in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively, was staff support (33.3%), parental support (45.4%), and principal support (41.2%).

One teacher-practice question, "What will you do differently next year?" was asked in Interview III. There were a total of 26 responses from the 18 new teachers, 50 percent of which were related directly to instruction (e.g., "restructure the reading program," "plan more small-group instruction," "individualize instruction more"). The other 50 percent of the responses were related to changes the new teachers would make in their own behaviors (e.g., "relax more," "be more flexible," "set higher expectations for children").

New-teacher needs were determined through two questions in each of the three interviews. The responses to the questions of what are your biggest challenges and concerns were subdivided into seven categories of needed support, as shown previously in Table 2. Table 3 lists the percentage of responses in each of the seven need categories for all three interviews, as well as the mean percent responses for the three interviews combined.

Table 3
Percentage of Challenge and Concern Responses Made by New Teachers in Each Category of Needed Support for Each Interview and for the Mean of the Three Interviews Combined

Needed Support Category	Interview I	Interview II	Interview III	Mean Percent
Instruction	36.4	56.8	45.8	46.3
System	9.9	2.8	20.8	11.2
Resource	3.7	0.0	0.0	1.2
Emotional	3.9	2.8	6.2	4.3
Managerial	23.3	13.4	8.3	15.0
Parental	5.9	5.5	6.3	5.9
Discipline	17.1	18.7	12.5	16.1

By way of overview, instructional needs were identified most frequently in each interview, occurring 36.4 percent, 56.8 percent, and 45.8 percent of the time in Interviews I, II, and III, respectively. System needs fell from 9.9 percent in Interview I to only 2.8 percent in Interview II, but increased to 20.8 percent in Interview III as the new teachers evinced concern over their job status for the ensuing school year. The resource, emotional, and parental categories received less focus with all percentages falling below 7 percent. Management needs were identified frequently during Interview I (23.3%) and declined over time in Interviews II (13.4%) and III (8.3%) as teachers presumably became more effective in organizing the school day. Needs related to discipline remained fairly stable from Interview I (17.1%) to Interview II (18.7%), but fell somewhat at Interview III (12.5%).

DISCUSSION

The data presented above, obtained in a teacher induction context, indicate that the majority of teachers are motivated to begin teaching by their enjoyment of children and school and that they maintain a very positive attitude about teaching across the induction year. Indeed, all of the new teachers at the end of their first year said that they would decide to begin teaching if they had that decision to make over again. This is encouraging, given the disturbing statistic that 15 percent of new teachers not in structured induction programs leave the profession after the first year (Schlechty and Vance 1983).

Over the past several years, there has been considerable attention given to the perils of beginning teaching (Glassberg 1979; Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983; Veenman 1984). More specifically, teachers entering the profession without induction support suffer "reality shock," in which there is a collapse of ideals formed in the process of teacher training, under the tremendous pressures of classroom teaching. It is a tribute to the concept of teacher induction that the new teachers in this program maintained a very positive attitude about teaching. This may be because the induction support offered to the new teachers served to lessen the teaching pressures they experienced. Almost all of the new teachers did say, however, that teaching is different from what they had expected in that teaching and aspects of time management were considerably more difficult than they had anticipated.

All of the new teachers found a variety of sources of support in dealing with the concerns and challenges they face. Somewhat more than half of the teachers found support in their teaching colleagues throughout the school year, although the influence of these colleagues declined some across time. Interestingly, the clinical support teachers became increasingly relied upon for support as the school year progressed, with more than 80 percent of the teachers using them as a source of support at the end of the school year. School principals were also seen as supportive by some of the teachers, but overall, school principals were not viewed as a particularly strong source of support by the new teachers.

First-year teachers are often uncomfortable with those in evaluative positions (Fox and Singletary 1986). In a study by Huffman and Leak (1986), new teachers viewed support personnel as "friendly critics" offering beneficial feedback and constructive criticism only if the support personnel were not in a formal evaluative role. In the present induction context, clinical support teachers were not involved in the evaluative process. Accordingly, it is not surprising that the clinical support teachers, who were offering assistance without assessment were identified by the new teachers as ultimately the most supportive in helping to meet the challenges and concerns of beginning teaching.

With respect to the teaching context, parental and family difficulties clearly represent a negative contextual factor for the major number of new teachers. This widely recognized contextual adversity is not completely ameliorated by a teacher induction context, and most likely will not be eliminated altogether in the absence of broader social change.

Of the significant categories of support needed by the new teachers that were revealed in the present interviews, two changed across time in predictable fashions. Support relating to administrative procedures of the school district was more needed at the end of the school year as teachers became concerned about their future employment. Support in managing and organizing the school day was most needed at the beginning of the school year and became less important at the end of the year when the new teachers had gained experience as a classroom instructional leader.

The two most frequently identified needs of the new teachers, those of support in the instructional process and in managing children, remained evident across the school year. In our previous research, the needs of new teachers in an induction context were assessed by observing the nature of support offered to new teachers by clinical support teachers (Odell 1986b), and by recording the questions that new teachers asked of clinical support teachers across their first year of teaching (Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro 1987). Both of these approaches yielded data consistent with the present interview data in finding that supporting new teachers in the instructional process is far and away the most critical aspect of a teacher induction program.

On the other hand, the prior research found that new teachers only infrequently asked clinical support teachers for guidance and ideas related to managing children and that clinical support teachers rarely offered new teachers spontaneous discipline support as compared to other categories of support. These data clearly indicated that discipline does not represent a major concern of new teachers. This conclusion is at odds with other data obtained using an interview procedure (Veenman 1984), including the present interview data, which show that discipline is a concern of major proportions to the new teacher. It may well be that the various methods of assessing the needs of beginning teachers in an induction context tap different dimensions of teacher needs. For example, the previously used direct observational approaches may be primarily recording the frequency of needed teacher support, while the present post hoc interview procedure may be primarily assessing the intensity of teacher concerns. In other words, discipline problems may not occur with a very high frequency for the new teacher, but when they do, they may be perceived by the new teacher to be of considerable intensity.

The present data do not directly reveal whether the characteristics of new teachers in an induction context differ substantially from those of new teachers not receiving structured induction support. However, in contrasting the present induction context data with the general literature pertaining to the characteristics of new teachers (e.g., Hawk 1984; Lortie 1975; Ryan et al. 1980), it would appear that the teacher induction context may produce new teachers who are characterized as being more motivated to continue teaching, more open to the receipt of support, and more focused on the instructional process during their initial teaching year.

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Chapter 4:

Statistics & Stories

Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

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Chapter 4:

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Each chapter of *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators* informs the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist facilitators in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with facilitators as the primary audience.

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Introduction

Effective program development can be viewed as a continuous cycle involving planning, implementation, evaluation, and renewed planning for program improvement (Gordon 1991, 64).

The challenge in evaluation is getting the best possible information to the people who need it -- and then *getting those people to actually use the information in appropriate ways for intended purposes* (Patton 1990, 12).

When confronted with evaluating mentoring programs, program coordinators will often say, "I know evaluation is important, but I don't have the time." Some will say, "I don't know the first thing about evaluation." This chapter has a twofold design: to illustrate the importance of using evaluation as an integral part of running a mentoring program, and to present a brief overview of what is actually involved in evaluation planning. Rather than a comprehensive overview of evaluation designs and techniques, the information in this chapter is meant to be an introductory resource to guide your initial thinking and planning.

Many decisions concerning the evaluation of your mentoring program will be up to you as program coordinator or planning committee member. This chapter gives you a view of some of the choices you'll face in planning evaluation. It should help you prepare for the decision making ahead, but should not be considered a "how to" manual. You will be making decisions about who will perform the evaluation over the years, what questions will be asked, what methods will be used to collect and analyze data, and how the results will be reported to different audiences. These will be your decisions because you:

- are the closest to your program and know its context;
- know the key policy makers;
- are aware of which questions are important to answer and which concerns should be probed concerning your program; and
- are cognizant of the resources available.

This chapter will answer the following questions:

- Why is evaluation important?
- What is evaluation?
- What are the decisions involved in designing an evaluation?
- How should you report the results of your evaluation?

Why Is Evaluation Important?

The evaluation of mentoring programs is vital for three reasons: accountability, program improvement and continuance, and knowledge generation. Evaluation data can ensure that your mentoring program is adhering to its goals and objectives, is being implemented effectively, and is having an impact on its intended audiences. This information can also help you to identify weaknesses and initiate appropriate changes, thereby not only improving the program, but helping to ensure its continuance. Finally, these data can be added to the growing body of knowledge concerning mentoring programs.

What Is Evaluation?

> Program evaluation is the systematic collection of information regarding activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs for use by specific people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what those programs are doing and affecting (Patton 1986, 14).

Evaluation data can be used in a formative manner throughout the duration of a program, continuously informing decision making. As the program matures, the decisions to be made change as do the information needs. Gradually the evaluation becomes more summative in nature, examining the impact and outcomes of a program. Evaluation of a mature program informs decisions regarding program continuance and can also contribute to knowledge in the field concerning mentoring programs.

There are several different paradigms of program evaluation, which vary in areas such as: the ways of establishing the questions to be answered, the design of the research, the methods of sampling and data collection and analysis, and the timing and type of feedback to audiences. Described below are the more traditional **quantitative** approach, the more recently used **qualitative** approach, and other newer approaches which encourage a **combination** of quantitative and qualitative data with emphasis on usefulness to stakeholders.

Until the 1970s, most educational research and evaluation was conducted following a traditional, scientific model that relied heavily on rigorous experimental designs in controlled settings. The emphasis in this model lies primarily on **quantitative** data that are collected in order to make generalized statements concerning statistically significant differences between or among groups. There is usually little emphasis on in-depth description of the context from which the data are generated.

However, Mishler (1979) and others argued that this traditional, scientific approach was not appropriate to the study of context-dependent phenomena involved in teaching and learning. Ethnographic methods, following the methods anthropologists used in studying a culture and the context in which it exists, entered the mainstream of educational research and evaluation as **qualitative** evaluation (Miles and Huberman 1984; Yin 1981; Patton 1990).

Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Patton (1986) outlined new approaches recommending that evaluators choose a variety of methods, providing quantitative and qualitative data, to fit the needs of the ultimate users of the information. These new approaches encourage continuously evolving designs and feedback to audiences. See **Figure 4.1** on page 4-3 for an illustration of how one of these, Patton's utilization-focused evaluation, draws from both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Figure 4.1 A Comparison of Evaluation Methods Relevant to a Set of Characteristics*

Characteristics	Quantitative Approach	Qualitative Approach	Utilization–Focused Approach
Goals	To determine truth, to gain scientific acceptance, to predict social phenomena	To understand and interpret data, to gain perspective of social phenomena	To achieve utility and relevance, to gain acceptance by intended users
Purpose	Summative	Formative	Intended for use by users
Type of Measurement	Quantitative data, for example, multiple-choice questionnaires, standardized tests	Qualitative data, for example, in-depth interviews, nonstandardized measures	Appropriate, credible, useful data
Design of Evaluation	Experimental, for example, control and experimental groups	Naturalistic inquiry	Creative, practical, situationally responsive designs
Researcher's Position	Objective	Subjective	Fair, balanced
Researcher's Relationship to Clients	Distant, detached	Close, involved	Collaborative, consultative
Means of Inquiry	Deduction	Induction	Either or both
Conceptualization	Independent and dependent variables	Holistic, interdependent system	Stakeholders' questions and issues
Approach to Study of Change	Pre–post measures, time series, static portrayals at discrete points in time	Process–oriented, evolving, capturing ongoing dynamism	Developmental action-oriented: What needs to be known to get the program from where it is to where it wants to be?
Primary Approaches to Variations in Data	Quantitative differences on uniform, standardized variables	Qualitative differences, uniqueness	Flexible: Focus on comparisons most relevant to intended users and evaluation questions
Results of Analysis of Data	Descriptive and inferential statistics	Case studies, content and pattern analysis	Answers to stakeholders' questions
Statements from Data	Generalizations	Statements that are bound to a particular context	Extrapolations

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* Note that the utilization-focused approach is not mutually exclusive of the first two approaches, but rather draws from and builds on each.

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If you use a combination approach to evaluation, you will need to work collaboratively with key decision makers and users of the data to develop at different points in time the key evaluation questions. As these are identified over the life of the program, you choose the most appropriate design and data collection method to answer these questions. Most often, a variety of techniques are used to obtain the most relevant information. In this approach, emphasis is placed on the *usefulness* of the *data* to the *users*.

What Are the Decisions Involved in Designing an Evaluation?

> In part, the final design of an evaluation depends on calculated trade-offs, weighing options, and political/philosophical considerations; in part, it depends on opportunity, resources, time constraints, and commitment (Patton 1980, 87).

Decision 1: Who Will Evaluate?

When planning its mentoring program, the first decision the planning group makes about evaluation is whether it will:

- conduct its own evaluation;
- collaborate with an outside evaluator to design, conduct, analyze data, and report on the evaluation; or
- hire an outside evaluator who works independently to review the program.

This decision will be dependent on the skills, interest, and accessibility of staff and the resources available.

Decision 2: What Is the Purpose of the Evaluation?

The planning group, with or without a consultant, needs to determine the purpose and scope of the evaluation before it is initiated. These decisions, of course, will be affected by the resources available. As mentioned before, there are three main purposes of evaluation: accountability, program improvement and continuance, and knowledge generation. In the early stages of evaluation, the focus is likely to be on documenting how the program is being implemented, for example, how many people are participating and in what ways and to what extent. The data collected may also include measures of satisfaction with the program and suggestions for improvement that can be provided to decision makers.

The focus in later stages of evaluation may be more on measuring outcomes of a mentoring program. Although the press for more outcome data may come much later in the program, wise planners make sure that baseline data are collected early on so that comparisons can be made. In addition, if the planning group wishes to demonstrate positive changes in variables such as retention of new teachers or quality of classroom teaching, decisions need to be made early, not only about collecting baseline data but about planning appropriate research designs. (See **Figure 4.2** on page 4-5 for some proposed outcomes of a mentoring program, the changes anticipated, and the means to measure change.)

Figure 4.2 Proposed Outcomes of a Mentoring Program, the Changes Anticipated, and the Means to Measure Change

Proposed Outcomes	Kinds of Change Anticipated	Means to Measure Change
The knowledge base of new teachers, and to some degree mentors, will be increased.	Change in knowledge base	Pre- and post-tests, surveys, or interviews
New teachers will expand their teaching repertoires, utilizing additional instructional strategies as the year progresses.	Change in skill level and use	Self-assessment checklist, interviews, surveys, classroom observation
Mentors and new teachers will be more reflective in their practice, and use that reflection to change future action.	Change in attitudes and opinions	Satisfaction scales, interviews, surveys, journals
Collegiality and collaboration will become the norm in the school.	Change in faculty from preference for isolation or semi-isolation to preference for collegiality and collaboration	Observations, surveys, interviews
Students will be more engaged and involved in their learning, thereby increasing their learning.	Improvement in student learning	Formal and informal assessments, surveys, interviews, observations, student products or portfolios

Decision 3: Who Are the Key Audiences?

In early stages of planning, it is essential to consider who the key audiences are for the evaluation. It is important to involve representatives from these key audiences in the planning stages so they can identify evaluation questions of greatest interest and importance to them and determine how and when to report evaluation findings to different audiences. Some may benefit from and request frequent informal feedback, whereas others may only have interest in final written reports.

The key audiences for your evaluation, besides the program leadership, might be the school board or school committee members, the superintendent, the community, officers and membership of the teachers' unions, the staff development coordinator for the district, mentor teachers, new teachers, building administrators, other faculty members, and/or state policy makers. Taken together, these groups are the program producers and benefactors as well as those who have expertise and power.

These audiences vary according to their needs, interests, and backgrounds. They may focus on different aspects of the program and want answers to different questions. For example, policy makers make decisions regarding the fate of programs, whereas program coordinators or directors are more concerned with whether the program is being administered appropriately. It is likely, therefore, that a combination of both quantitative and qualitative data will be required to meet the needs of multiple stakeholders.

Decision 4: What Questions and Issues Should Be Evaluated?

These will come from knowledge of or discussions with members of your key audiences, most of whom will have representation on the planning group. Essentially, you want to identify issues and concerns about the mentoring program that are relevant for these audiences, and understand how the data gathered will assist you or the planning group in making decisions regarding the program. These concerns will be the basis for questions that are clearly stated, precise, and relevant to those who make decisions about the improvement of the program. (See examples identified in **Figure 4.3** on page 4-7 and in **Appendix 4-A** on page 4-23.)

The issues to be studied will also vary in terms of the context of your program and district. Examples of some that might be explored, in addition to those listed in **Figure 4.3** are:

- the role of the mentor, including new teachers' perceptions of the mentor's role and the mentors' perceptions of their own responsibilities;
- the quality of the support provided by administrators to mentors, mentors and other faculty members to new teachers, and new teachers to their colleagues;
- the concerns and growth of new teachers and mentors;
- the quality of the relationship between mentors and new teachers; or
- the satisfaction rates of experienced teachers before and after their mentoring experience.

Decision 5: What Data Collection Methods Should Be Employed?

It is time now to determine methods of data collection. A matrix similar to that in **Figure 4.3** might assist you in this task. As in the identification of concerns and the purpose of the evaluation, it is best if your key audiences can be involved in designing the study, developing methods of data collection, designing questions for surveys or interviewers, recommending valuable sources of data, collecting or supplying information, analyzing the data, suggesting alternative interpretations of the collected data, and reporting the learnings.

You need to choose the data collection method(s) that best suit(s) your needs. Among the data collection methods most commonly used are:

- surveys or questionnaires;
- document analysis;
- individual and group interviews;
- observation; and
- cost benefit and cost effectiveness analyses.

Figure 4.3 Selected Questions or Concerns of Key Audiences, Sources of Information, Data Collection Methods, Data Collectors, and Deadlines

Concerns/Questions of Key Audiences	Sources of Information	Data Collection Methods	Data Collectors	Deadlines
What are the demographics of program participants? a. Number of new teachers b. Number of mentors c. Years of experience d. Number of minorities	Mentors, new teachers	District's annual census of teachers Survey	Central office personnel Mentors in each building	October 14; ongoing for those entering the program during the year
Has the program been implemented as planned?	Implementation plan for mentoring program Program coordinators, mentors, new teachers, and other faculty	Comparison of plan versus reality Interviews	Central office personnel, staff development coordinator or director, program coordinators	
What effect has the mentoring experience had on the development or enhancement of the instructional strategies of new teachers and mentors?	New teachers, mentors, principals, students	Observations, self-analysis, surveys, interviews, analysis of journal entries	Mentors, new teachers	June 1
Have new teachers become more reflective about their own teaching?	Mentors, new teachers	Documentation from observations, self-assessments, interviews, analysis of journal entries	Mentors, new teachers	June 1
How can the training provided to mentors be improved to more adequately prepare them for their new roles?	Mentors	Evaluation data collected after each training, end-of-the-year survey	Mentor trainers or staff development coordinator/ director	Ongoing

When selecting data collection methods, you will want to weigh each method's advantages and disadvantages (see **Figure 4.4** on page 4-9) against the needs of your key audiences and the time, money, and human resources at your disposal. Essentially, the selection is a trade-off. Questionnaires and document analyses, while involving an increased number of respondents and gaining breadth of information at a reduced cost, generally afford less detail and low flexibility to probe a particular individual's response. Interviews and observations, while offering the most in-depth information about a program, are more costly and time-consuming. As your key audiences have different needs, you might consider employing a combination of these methods to serve all of their needs and to provide richer data on the program. (See **Appendix 4-B** on page 4-25 for information on developing questionnaires, **Appendix 4-C** on page 4-27 for information on conducting interviews, **Appendix 4-D** on page 4-29 for two samples of questionnaires for mentors, and **Appendix 4-E** on page 4-35 for two samples of questionnaires for new teachers.)

Pilot testing of data collection instruments is recommended. By administering instruments to a small set of the target audience (for example, five mentors for a questionnaire to be sent to mentors), you are afforded a chance to clarify language, eliminate ineffective questions, and/or add questions that address significant issues unearthed in the piloting process.

Often, the evaluation process will have surprising outcomes, which can be either positive or negative. For example, other faculty members learned new skills and techniques from their work to support new teachers, and administrators felt their role as evaluators of new teachers was usurped by mentors. Whether positive or negative, these impacts are just as important as those for which you have planned. If you include interviews, observations, and open-ended questions in your evaluation efforts, you are less likely to overlook or fail to capture them. They can be more easily overlooked, cast aside, or even undocumented if you rely solely on closed-ended questionnaires.

In addition to a broad-based approach that gathers data in many areas and from many people through surveys or questionnaires, you may also choose to gather more in-depth information about individual experiences through individual or group interviews. This approach can be used to help improve programs, to evaluate the outcomes relevant to individual mentors and new teachers, and to understand unusual successes or failures in the program. Data gathered can answer questions such as: What do individual teachers think and feel as they go through the program? What changes do they make?

These more open-ended methods provide you with stories to share with mentors, new teachers, faculty members from teacher preparation programs, school committee members, district administrators, and your community in presentations, press releases, or articles in newsletters.

How Should You Report the Results of Your Evaluation?

Prior to reporting the results of your evaluation, all concerned parties must agree that the data will not just be used to create a written document, but also to inform the implementation of the program.

In reporting the results of your evaluation, it is important to focus the report(s) on each key audience's concerns and interests and present the data in a clear and meaningful manner. Evaluation reports can take many forms, and are often determined by the needs of the audience. See **Figure 4.5** on page 4-10 for a description of the types of evaluation reports, their content, their most appropriate audiences, and their extent of distribution.

Figure 4.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Most Commonly Used Data Collection Methods

Data Collection Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Surveys or questionnaires	Greater breadth -- can be administered to any number of respondents at one time More uniformity in responses, thus easy to interpret and analyze Anonymity of respondents	Little flexibility and probing of respondents' answers Lack of rapport with respondent Respondents may be considered a biased group Low return rates
Document Analysis	Wide variety of information readily available -- diaries, journals, logs, videotapes, attendance records, planning documents of program	Incomplete or irrelevant records Possible legal restrictions to overcome
Interviews	Greater depth -- interviewer can clarify questions or answers, can probe for further information, can observe body language and voice inflection Better rapport with respondent	Expensive and time-consuming Sample size smaller due to time and cost factors Interpersonal and communication skills of interviewers are critical to success, training very important
Observations	Rich source of anecdotal data	Expensive due to time and cost involved in training observers, gathering and analyzing data, and extensive pilot testing Possible alteration of behavior in those being observed Observer reliability can be an issue, for example, behavior can be overlooked or interpreted in different ways by different people

Figure 4.5 Types of Reporting Methods, Their Content, and Audience

Type of Report	Description	Potential Audience	Distribution
Technical report	Comprehensive description of evaluation procedures, the program, and evaluation findings with recommendations	Program planners and implementors, others upon request	Limited
Executive summary	Brief overview of evaluation procedures, key findings, and general recommendations	Key decision makers, for example, administrators, school board members	More widespread
Multiple short reports	Reports targeted to specific audiences, contents determined by audience's issues and concerns	Varied (mentors, new teachers, other faculty members, administrators, faculty from teacher preparation programs, parents, community members)	Widespread among different audiences
News releases	Brief highlights of evaluation tied to needs of the general public	General public	Very widespread
Oral presentations	Brief overview of key findings and recommendations, more in-depth treatment according to audience's needs	Varied (mentors, new teachers, other faculty members, administrators, faculty from teacher preparation programs, parents, community members)	Limited

The amount of detail provided, the length of the report, and its content vary in terms of the key audience and the goal you have for the dissemination of the report to that audience. Program planners and implementors who are interested in information that will enable them to improve their programs may prefer a comprehensive, detailed report that they have helped design. (See report from regional training session that was shared with program planners in **Appendix 4-F** on page 4-39).

Policy and decision makers typically want data that will assist them in determining whether a program should be continued, expanded, diminished, or disbanded. Some will want to read the comprehensive report, while others may prefer to review an executive summary that contains a concise presentation of the key findings and recommendations -- the information that will be most useful to them in making decisions about the program.

Another type of report is needed for the community at large. As community support is also important to the continuation of the mentoring program, you will want to share your results in a variety of ways. You might issue a press release to your local paper; speak at a district meeting or another school's staff meeting; speak at a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, the Rotary Club, or the Parent Teachers Association; put periodic updates or stories in the school's/district's newsletter; or present your findings at a regional or national professional meeting. In addition, the availability of the comprehensive report to the general public should be well publicized. Of the utmost importance is that the information be shared with individuals who can benefit from it or who can use it to make decisions regarding the program's effectiveness and continuance.

Conclusion

If evaluation is perceived as a critical element of program development (one that constantly provides recommendations for improvement), it becomes a natural part of the program. As such, it must also be viewed as an activity that occurs throughout the process -- before, during, and after the implementation of your mentoring program. In this light, evaluation is a vital tool to your program's improvement. In addition to providing data that lead to improvement, evaluation provides the means to support your program's continued existence, to assess the growth of the individuals who participate in it, and to document the program's impact on your school's culture and community.

As noted in Chapter 1, change is a process, not an event. It takes time. Three to five years is not an unreasonable time span for a significant change to take place in schools (Loucks and Zacchei 1983). During the first years of implementation, it may be difficult for you to conduct a comprehensive evaluation of your program, as the time, staff, and funds to conduct this evaluation may be limited. In this case, a possible alternative is to choose to assess the effectiveness of a different component (the mentor selection process, the preparation of mentors, or building relationships) each year, to revise that component, and to evaluate your entire program in its fifth year.

It is also possible to use a variety of informal means to gather data when a formal evaluation is not possible. Among options you might consider are:

- conducting and recording storytelling sessions with mentors and new teachers, identifying common themes, and using those data to revise your program;
- convening key decision makers and program participants to assess, redefine, and plan the future of the program; or
- using small amounts of time when the district's mentors or new teachers meet to brainstorm successes and setbacks, or to discuss issues and potential solutions regarding one aspect of the program.

The key is to gather appropriate information and use it in a manner that makes your mentoring program an indispensable tool for positive change in teaching and learning.

ACTIVITIES FOR CHAPTER 4

	Activity	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
4-1.	Documenting Statistics and Stories (page 4-15)	To ensure that evaluation is an integral part of the continual development of a mentoring program, with data being used to improve the program and garner support for it	90-180 minutes	Awareness Application	Individual reading Small-group work

ACTIVITY 4-1

DOCUMENTING STATISTICS AND STORIES

Purpose(s): To ensure that evaluation is an integral part of the continual development of a mentoring program, with data being used to improve the program and garner support for it

Materials: Enough copies of Chapter 4 and the handout "Documenting Our Statistics and Stories" for each participant, newsprint, easel, markers, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: Often program planners become too immersed in the development and implementation of a program and forget the importance of evaluating their programs. This activity is meant to enable participants to begin the process of developing an evaluation plan for their program. It can be used with the multiconstituent planning group, program planners, or mentors. In each case, it will have to be adapted to the audience and context in which it is used. It should be conducted at an appropriate time in the planning cycle, rather than after implementation.

It can be used in a group that has representatives from several mentoring programs. However, it would probably be most effective if the small groups formed in Step 3 contained individuals who were involved in the same program.

Process/Steps:

1. Review the purposes for evaluating a mentoring program: accountability, program improvement and continuance, and knowledge generation.
2. Ask participants to read Chapter 4 individually. As they read, have them note important themes and how they apply to their mentoring program.
3. When participants have finished, ask them to form site-based groups.
4. On a sheet of newsprint or the handout "Documenting Our Statistics and Stories," ask each small group to answer the following questions in terms of their mentoring program:
   - Who are the key decision makers and users of data on the mentoring program in their district?
   - What are the questions or intended outcomes that these individuals or groups would ask or expect?
   - What kind of data needs to be collected to answer these questions?
   - How can these data be gathered, by whom, and when?
   - How and when will the results of the evaluation be shared with the key decision makers and users?

5. Bring the whole group back together again. Ask them to share any observations or insights they gained from this process.

Time Required: 90-180 minutes

DOCUMENTING OUR STATISTICS AND STORIES

Key Audiences	Questions/ Outcomes	Data Needed	Data Collection Methods/Data Collectors/ Deadlines	Reporting

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RESOURCES ON STATISTICS AND STORIES

STATISTICS AND STORIES – Selected Print Resources

Arbuckle, Margaret A. and Murray, Lynn B. 1989. *Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide*. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

> Chapter 7, "Responsive Evaluation of Staff Development Programs," offers an excellent, practical resource on the naturalistic and responsive approach to evaluation. In addition to providing information on this approach, the authors share activities and suggest additional resources.

Patton, Michael Quinn. 1986. *Utilization-Focused Evaluation*, 2nd ed. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

> Strategies are presented on how to conduct comprehensive, utilization-focused evaluations that are useful to the individuals who have an interest in the findings. The content is both practical and theoretical, as relevant literature and case examples are offered to illustrate major points.

______________. 1990. *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*, 2nd ed. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

> This book provides an introduction to qualitative inquiry and offers strategies for using qualitative methods in ways that produce useful and valid data. Its contents address when it is appropriate to use qualitative methods; how to design a qualitative study; how to use observational methods; how to conduct in-depth, open-ended interviews; and how to analyze qualitative data.

Raupp, Magdala. 1990. *Evaluation Management Handbook*. Andover, MA: The NETWORK, Inc.

> This document provides an overview of program evaluation. It defines program evaluation, discusses the ten basic steps in program evaluation (formulating goals; stating objectives; deciding on scope of evaluation; stating evaluation questions; designing the evaluation; choosing methods of information collection; listing activities and establishing time lines; estimating the cost of an evaluation; collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data; and developing an evaluation report), describes how to use evaluation findings, presents some common misconceptions about evaluation, and offers consumer tips on selecting an evaluation consultant.

STATISTICS AND STORIES – Other Resources

Faddis, Bonnie; Ruzicka, Patricia; Berard, Barbara; and Huppertz, Nancy. 1988. *Guide for Planning, Implementing, and Evaluating a Mentoring Program. Hand in Hand: Mentoring Young Women, Book 1.* Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Center for Sex Equity.

Gordon, Stephen P. 1991. *How to Help Beginning Teachers Succeed.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Guba, Egon and Lincoln, Yvonna. 1981. *Effective Evaluation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Heller, Mel P. and Sindelar, Nancy W. 1991. *Developing an Effective Teacher Mentor Program.* Fastback 319. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Herman, Joan L.; Morris, Lynn Lyons; and Fitz-Gibbon, Carol Taylor. 1987. *Evaluator's Handbook.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan and Zacchei, David. November 1983. "Applying Our Findings to Today's Innovations." *Educational Leadership* 41 (3): 28-31.

Miles, Matthew and Huberman, Michael. 1984. *Qualitative Data Analysis.* Belmont, CA: Sage Publications.

___________. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook,* 2nd ed. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Mishler, Elliot. February 1979. "Meaning and Context: Is There Any Other Kind?" *Harvard Educational Review* 49 (February): 1-19.

Patton, Michael Quinn. 1980. *Qualitative Evaluation Methods.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Sullivan, Cheryl Granade. 1992. *How to Mentor in the Midst of Change.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Van Maanen, John. January-February 1979. "The Process of Program Evaluation." *The Grantsmanship Center News,* 29-74.

Willis, Charles L. and Auer, Barbara R. 1988. *Beginning Teachers and Professional Development.* Elmhurst, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

Yin, Robert K. September 1981. "The Case Study as a Serious Research Strategy." *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization* 3 (September): 97-114.

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 4-A

A SAMPLE OF EVALUATION QUESTIONS

- How is the mentoring program organized?
- What do staff do?
- Is training being implemented according to plan?
- Were there any unusual circumstances or events that affected the implementation of the mentoring program?
- How are mentors or new teachers integrated into the program?
- What do mentors and new teachers experience in the program?
- What are the new teachers' reactions to the program?
- What are the program's strengths and weaknesses according to the program coordinator, mentors, new teachers, other teachers in the school, faculty of teacher preparation programs, and other stakeholders? What are their suggestions for improvement?
- Which of the program's strategies have been most successful in preparing mentors for their new roles?
- Why have these strategies been successful?
- Which of the program's strategies have been least successful in preparing mentors for their new roles?
- What could be done to make those strategies more effective or should they be dropped from the program?
- What role was played by faculty from teacher preparation programs?
- How did the knowledge base of involved teachers change during the program?
- To what extent did the new teachers expand their teaching repertoires by utilizing additional instructional strategies?
- To what extent are mentors and new teachers more reflective in their practice after involvement in the mentoring program?

APPENDIX 4-B

DEVELOPING A QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of a questionnaire is to verify, prioritize, quantify, or query a larger group of individuals. Questionnaires can also provide the data upon which to develop questions for further research through interviews, case studies, or observations. Or, they can be used to ask a larger group for information or opinions on issues identified through these methods.

When designing a survey or questionnaire, compare each question to the goals of the evaluation. If the question ties directly to the goals, use it. If not, either discard it or rework it until it does. Ask yourself:

- What is the purpose of this question in terms of the goals of the evaluation?
- Does the question accomplish this purpose?
- Will it provide information that we can use?

The questions developed must undergo scrutiny in terms of reliability, validity, and bias. Reliability asks if the question will produce consistent responses; validity, whether the question measures the concept or concern at issue; and bias, whether a question makes one answer more likely to occur than another. To better ensure reliability, you need to make your questions short, direct, and specific and avoid asking two questions in one.

Questions and answers can take two forms: open-ended, allowing the respondents to answer in their own words, or closed-ended, offering a choice of answers. Closed-ended questions provide a uniform frame of reference for all respondents and offer an easy and inexpensive means to work with data. However, they also lose the richness of detail afforded by open-ended questions. Open-ended questions allow respondents free rein in framing their answers but take more time to analyze. Closed-ended questions are more appropriate when a quick tabulation of results is needed; open-ended, when you want respondents to use their own frame of reference. A questionnaire can include both closed-ended and open-ended questions. (See examples of questionnaires for mentors in Appendix 4-D on page 4-30 and new teachers in Appendix 4-E on page 4-36.)

Arbuckle and Murray offer the following guidelines for the construction of questionnaires:

- Start with general questions to put the respondent at ease.
- Make sure that questions flow from one to the other.
- Group questions on a similar topic together. Provide an introductory sentence when the topic changes.
- A broad question can be followed up by questions, such as "If yes, then . . ." or "If no, then . . ." (Arbuckle and Murray 1989, 7-100).

APPENDIX 4-C

CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

Interviews allow you to "enter into the other person's perspective" (Patton 1980, 196). There are three approaches to collecting qualitative data through open-ended interviews:

- the informal conversational interview, which relies on the spontaneous generation of questions;
- a general interview guide approach, which outlines a set of issues to be explored in the interview; and
- the standardized open-ended interview, which consists of a set of carefully worded and arranged questions (Patton 1980).

For the novice, the standardized open-ended interview is probably the most viable option. It provides an instrument that decision makers can review, minimizes the variations among interviewers, enables interview time to be used carefully, and makes analysis of the data easier.

In developing the instrument for an interview, you need to determine:

- what questions to ask;
- how to word the questions;
- how to sequence the questions;
- how much detail you are looking for in the answers; and
- how long to make the interview.

You can ask questions that solicit responses regarding the interviewee's experience or behavior, opinions or values, feelings, knowledge, or background. For example, background or demographic questions might address age, sex, grade or subject level taught, or number of years taught.

Before you begin the actual interview, it will help to put the respondent at ease if you briefly review the purpose of the interview; the topics that will be addressed; who will receive the information; how the data will be handled, including the assurance of confidentiality; and how the information will be used.

It is best to begin with questions that solicit responses concerning the interviewee's experience with the program. These initial inquiries can be followed with those that ask for interpretations, opinions, or feelings.

The same criteria for questions regarding reliability, validity, and bias apply to questions used in interviews. To ensure reliability, your questions need to be short, direct, and specific; avoid asking two questions at once.

During the interview, it is important to listen carefully and jot down key phrases or major points. With the interviewee's permission, you can tape his or her responses. After the interview, take a few minutes to review and expand upon your notes. The tapes can be transcribed, or you can use them to check your notes when you are unsure of their accuracy.

Once the interviews are completed, the data analysis begins. Your tasks are to look for patterns and to integrate what different people have said. The first step is to read notes from all of the interviews, identify common themes and topics, and record them in a way that is most useful to you. There are several methods for compiling these data to make the analysis more manageable. For example, there are computer programs available to assist you in sorting comments into categories. However, if such a program is not available to you, you can cut and paste notes from interviews, or record all comments on index cards to group similar comments in like categories. Whichever method you select, the patterns observed are the important findings. They will likely identify what works, what does not work, and recommendations for change (Patton 1980).

APPENDIX 4-D

SUPPORT TEAM MEMBER REFLECTION FORM

1. What successes did you experience in your work as a support team member this year?

2. What specific skills, information, or resources would have been helpful this year to make you a more effective support team member?

3. What would you like to improve upon next year?

4. What specific skill or knowledge training would help you improve your support of new teachers for next year?

Source: Reprinted with permission of the author from "Support Team Member Reflection Form" by Susan Walters, Wells-Ogunquit Community School District, Wells, ME.

MENTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like to gather some information from you that will help us improve our mentoring program. Your responses, in the form of aggregate data, will be shared with you and your colleagues.

Please read each question carefully. Respond by checking "yes" or "no" or by writing your answer in the space provided. Return your completed questionnaire to . . . .

My Role as a Mentor and the Support Received from Others

1. How many years have you been a mentor?

   ___ years

2. What individuals, activities, or readings were most helpful in enabling you to understand your role as a mentor?

   Individuals:______________________________

   Activities:______________________________

   Readings:______________________________

3. What other activities might assist you in gaining this understanding?

   ____

   ____

   ____

4. What kinds of administrative support were most valuable in helping you to fulfill your role?

   ____

   ____

   ____

Source: Adapted with permission of the author from "Mentor Questionnaire" by Elaine Holt, Nashua Public Schools, Nashua, NH.

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5. Which types of administrative support were not as valuable?

6. How many times did you observe your new teacher in a typical month?

___ times

7. How many times did your new teacher observe you in a typical month?

___ times

8. To your knowledge, how many times did your new teacher observe other faculty members teaching in a typical month?

___ times

9. What other resources did you guide your new teacher to use?

10. Please describe any strategies you employ to find time to meet with your new teacher.

11. Please describe any strategies you believe the district should employ to facilitate finding time with your new teacher.

12. Please describe any strategies you use that are effective in building a collegial relationship with your new teacher.

Interest in Serving as a Mentor in the Future

1. Would you be willing to be a mentor again?

☐ yes
☐ no

If yes, why would you be willing to serve again?

If no, what would keep you from serving as a mentor again?

Open-ended Questions

1. One real benefit of being a mentor was . . .

2. The biggest challenge that I had this year as a mentor was . . .

3. As a mentor, I wish I had known . . .

4. If I was to give advice to a new mentor, it would be . . .

5. The most important thing I learned from my new teacher was . . .

6. One problem that my new teacher had that I could not handle was . . .

7. If I was to design a mentor training program, I would emphasize . . .

Thank you for your assistance.

APPENDIX 4-E

FEEDBACK FORM FOR NEW TEACHERS

Your feedback will be very helpful in helping us improve the support we offer to new teachers in the district. You do not need to sign the form, and your answers will be confidential.

1. What aspects of the support team process helped you as a new teacher in the district?

2. How could the process have been more helpful to you?

3. What suggestions would you make for improving the certification support system?

4. What did you learn from working with a support team or mentor?

5. What advice would you give your mentor for working with new teachers next year?

Source: Reprinted with permission of the author from "Feedback Form for Certification Candidates" by Susan Walters, Wells-Ogunquit Community School District, Wells, ME.

NEW TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like to gather some information from you that will help us to improve the program. Your responses, along with those of other new teachers and mentors, will be shared with you in the form of aggregate data.

Please read each question carefully. Respond by checking "yes" or "no" or by writing your answer in the space provided. Return your completed questionnaire to . . . .

1. If you were going to mentor a new teacher, what would you do to build a trusting, professional relationship with him or her?

____

____

____

2. Did you and your mentor find time to meet? ☐ yes ☐ no
If yes, how did you manage this?

____

____

____

3. In a typical week, how many times did you meet with your mentor?

___ times

4. Did you meet at (please check all that apply):

☐ a specified time each week

☐ as needed

☐ other (please specify): ______________________________

____

Source: Adapted with permission of the author from "New Teacher Questionnaire" by Elaine Holt, Nashua Public Schools, Nashua, NH.

5. How many times did you observe your mentor in a typical month?

   ___ times

6. How many times did you observe other faculty members teaching in a typical month?

   ___ times

7. How many times did your mentor observe you in a typical month?

   ___ times

8. Did you discuss these observations? If yes, how did you find the time?

9. Did you conduct an action research project in your classroom this year? If yes, please describe.

Open-ended Questions

1. The biggest challenge that I had this year was . . .

2. During this first year, I wish I had known . . .

3. One problem that I could not handle was . . .

4. One benefit of having a mentor was . . .

5. The most important thing I learned from my mentor was . . .

6. If I was a mentor and I had a new teacher, I would be sure to . . .

7. If I was to design a mentor training program, I would emphasize . . .

Thank you for your assistance.

APPENDIX 4-F

EVALUATION REPORT FOR PROGRAM PLANNERS AND PARTICIPANTS

The second regional training for the eight pilot projects, which are implementing *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators*, was held at The Regional Laboratory on November 21, 1992. Thirty participants from the following projects participated in the event: Wells-Ogunquit (ME) Community School District; University of Massachusetts at Amherst/Holyoke Public Schools; the New Hampshire Collaborative (including the districts of Berlin, Nashua, Keene, Timberlane, Rochester, and the Tilton School); New York City Teacher Centers Consortium; Niagara Falls (NY) City School District; Pawtucket (RI) School Department/Providence College; and Chittenden East (VT) School District. Teams consisted of teachers, principals, district-level administrators, staff developers, and faculty members from teacher preparation programs. Sessions, based upon the text and activities for the third chapter, were led by participants, state education agency staff, and Laboratory staff.

As in the first training, the evaluation was divided into four major sections: an overall impression of the training session, an assessment of how the session addressed the four goals of the training established for the year, a reaction to a list of desired outcomes suggested by the participants themselves (the degree of importance to them and a sense of how they were addressed in the regional session), and some open-ended questions.

Overall Impression: In terms of the participants' overall impression of the regional training, the means of their responses on a Likert scale from 5 (best) to 1 (worst) are listed below:

Organized	5.0
Informative	4.8
Worthwhile	5.0

Reactions to Achievement of Goals: Their reactions to the achievement of the four goals, also ranked on a scale of 5 (very well) to 1 (not at all), are listed as means below:

To promote mentoring for new teachers	4.8
To provide feedback on the guidebook	4.1
To establish a regional network among staff in mentoring projects	4.5
To offer team members a professional development experience	4.8

Desired Outcomes: Prior to their attendance at the first regional training, team members were sent a survey to complete regarding their needs. The reactions to the participants' desired outcomes have been assessed at both training sessions. The results for the second regional training are indicated in mean scores below. The first column lists the desired outcome, the second, the mean for its importance to the participants, and the third, the mean for how well participants felt it was addressed in the training.

Desired Outcome	Importance	How Well Addressed
Practice with activities in guidebook	4.4	4.2
Strategies for using the guidebook and other resources for training mentor teachers	4.5	4.0
Increased skills and understanding related to:		
organizing and implementing a mentoring program or plan	4.2	4.5
being a mentor	4.2	4.1
teaching mentoring skills	4.8	4.5
resolving conflicts and building relationships within a team	4.7	4.3
creating or supporting change in a school community	4.6	3.7
Sharing knowledge and experience with staff from other mentoring projects	4.6	4.5
Learning and gathering resources from staff of other mentoring projects	4.7	4.3

Open-ended Questions: When asked what their significant learnings from the training session were, the responses were as follows:

- 45 percent mentioned the variety of observation/data collection techniques that were shared.
- 23 percent learned about strategies for conflict resolution.
- 21 percent enjoyed sharing, learning, and gaining ideas from each other.

When asked how the content of this training session will help to move them forward in their work, responses were as follows:

- 63 percent gained skills to use in working with interns or new teachers, strategies to teach potential mentors, and training materials to use personally and in training others.
- 22 percent received inspiration, energy, affirmation, or views on the larger picture of what other districts are doing.
- 13 percent mentioned specific assistance in developing their mentoring program, for example, "helped me to resolve some 'log jams'; helped us to form/shape our goals/philosophy statement, around which we can build an effective mentor program"; "gave me a good foundation for our next implementation stage"; or "may help to make our program more unified."

When asked to reveal what could have been done differently and better, responses were as follows:

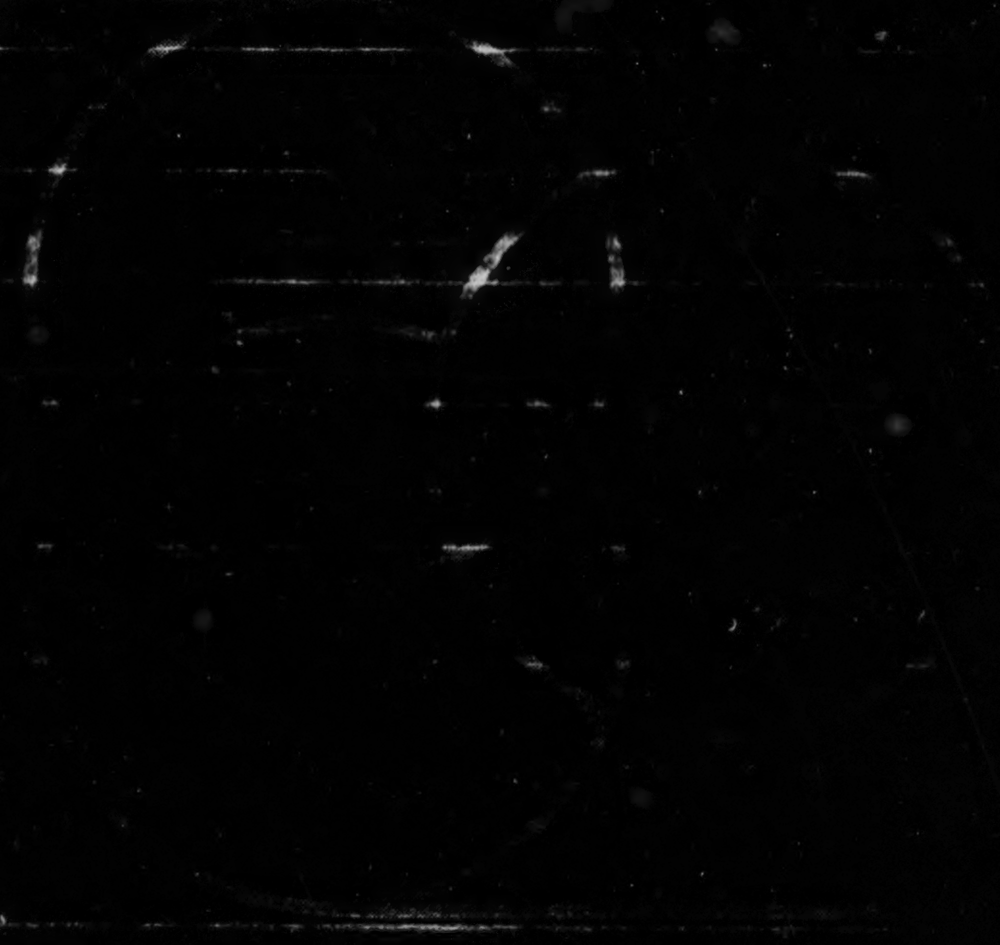
- 46 percent said nothing, for example, "well organized, as usual . . . keep up the excellent work," "very well organized and informative," "thought it was great," "leaving invigorated and refreshed," or "well planned and cheerfully delivered!"
- 31 percent wanted more time for networking and sharing.
- 12 percent wished that they could have participated in all of the concurrent sessions.

When asked if they had recommendations for the planners, the responses were as follows:

- 41 percent had no recommendations.
- 41 percent indicated that the group should "Keep it up! This was a great session!", "worthwhile day full of insights, sharing, and collegiality," or "Keep on moving forward."
- 14 percent looked toward the future, for example, "Can't we continue this after March . . . once or twice a year or something?"

Chapter 5:

The Launch - Teacher Induction as the Crucial Stage of the Professional Development Journey



Mentoring:

A Resource & Training Guide for Educators

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The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

Chapter 5:

The Launch -- Teacher Induction as the Crucial Stage of the Professional Development Journey

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Each chapter of *Mentoring: A Resource and Training Guide for Educators* informs the other chapters. Knowledge of the entire guidebook will assist facilitators in responding to unforeseen questions from participants. Chapters 1 and 3 speak primarily to mentor teachers; Chapters 2 and 4, primarily to project planners and directors; and Chapter 5, to staff developers. In each chapter, the activities are written with facilitators as the primary audience.

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Introduction

Those of us who have grown up in the space age have little trouble imagining the anticipation and excitement of a rocket launch. We, too, have spent tense moments watching and listening to the countdown and wondering what it must be like to sit in the place of one of those astronauts about to embark on the journey of a lifetime. We have heard the stories of years of preparation and training, the hours of simulations and practice, and the arduous selection process for each mission.

The journey metaphor has been used before to describe the experience of learning to teach. The analogy of the rocket launch highlights the essential and critical nature of the induction period in the teaching career. It is the beginning of the trip: it sets the direction; it builds the momentum; and it is the most intense part of the journey. It is no longer preparation; it is for real. The time for contrived experiences and theoretical learning is over. The pragmatic lessons of reality assume prominence. The tragedy of the Challenger space shuttle disaster reminds us of the uncertainty and danger of the launch. The journey cannot be a success without a good beginning. A good beginning, however, means more than mere survival. Appropriate support and challenge are needed to make this a worthwhile learning mission. It can be a tragedy when a new teacher does not receive assistance and either leaves the profession or becomes stagnant or stunted.

At the launch, much attention is focused on those about to begin the journey. These space travelers have the support and assistance of countless others, not the least of whom is the staff of mission control. Mission control is there to guide, support, coach, explain, problem-solve, entertain, and provide whatever services necessary so that the astronauts reach sustained orbit and complete their mission successfully. The relationship of astronaut to mission control is key. It reminds the travelers that they are not alone. Very often, the voice of mission control is an experienced astronaut and the experience of the veteran can lend a comforting perspective to the experience of the novice. After all, both have shared the intensity of the launch.

The power of the launch metaphor is in describing the intensity of the initial part of the journey. As Andrews notes, "the beginning teacher's entrance into the profession is a most complex and fragile experience." He also offers Ryan's analogy that "the first year of professional work is for the teacher the ultimate teachable moment" (Andrews 1987, 143-147). Cole likens the experience of new teachers to the Velveteen rabbit's process of becoming "real" (Cole 1990, 6). While no metaphor is perfect in every aspect, all of the comparisons draw attention to the critical nature of the initiation period.

This chapter focuses on the "launch" of a teaching career and the importance of a good start to reach the "sustained orbit" of ongoing professional development and a successful teaching career. The following questions will help guide the discussion of the purpose of induction in a teacher's career:

- How is the concept of professional development changing?
- What is good professional development?
- How can induction represent the best of professional development practices?

How Is the Concept of Professional Development Changing?

The goal of the space program has not always been the same. It has evolved from Alan Shepard's first flight beyond the earth's atmosphere, through multiple orbits around the earth with "space walks," to lunar landings, and now to some very sophisticated shuttle missions. Early attempts were rather singular in their expectations. Today, they are elaborate arrays of multiple goals (scientific, military, industrial, communicational, educational, etc.). Likewise, professional development has changed from some early limited notions to a much more complex concept.

The metamorphosis of the notion of teacher growth and development can be traced through the collection of terms which have been used to describe it. *In-service education* was originally used to describe for whom training was being provided -- teachers currently employed or "in service." The term also differentiated itself from preservice education, which occurred before prospective teachers began their first teaching position. In-service was seen as a way to "fix" teachers and to get them to teach the "correct" material the "right" way. Teachers were viewed as passive recipients of the proper content and pedagogy. The term has even come to be used as a verb, to describe how teachers have been "in-serviced."

As more educators recognized the idea that teachers have their own learning agendas, the concept of teacher learning as growth and development became more acceptable. The term *development* seemed to emerge along with the literature on adult development and the idea that adults do indeed grow and change. At first, *staff development* was the popular term to help us think collectively, as a school unit. Developing as a staff helped teachers to focus on the perceived needs of the school. Through these discussions of professional responsibilities, teachers also began to voice their own personal growth needs.

- How could both personal needs and professional responsibilities be met through staff development?
- Is looking after one's personal needs useful for the development of the entire school?
- How would a quasi profession like teaching reconcile the two realms of personal and professional growth?

Ultimately, the political question of "who decides" what is appropriate staff development became part of the conversation. Could practitioners be trusted to assume responsibility for their own growth?

Somewhere along the way, the term *professional development* crept into the language to describe teacher learning. The obvious use of the word *professional* perhaps underscores the idea that teaching is still not considered by many to be a real profession. Few of the established professions use the word as often as educators, yet this is probably a sign that education is "coming of age" and deciding for itself what this word *profession* really means. The phrase "professional development," besides giving an apparent image boost, also is more comprehensive than the term *staff development*. It encourages the teacher to consider not only the improvement of one's own practice and that of one's own staff, but also the responsibility for the entire professional practice of education.

A few years ago, Judy Arin-Krupp opened a workshop for a mixed audience of teachers, administrators, and teacher educators by asking, "Who here is responsible for staff development?" A few hands went up. She asked again. The response was the same show of hands. She looked at a teacher in the front row and asked, "Who is responsible for your staff development?" The stunned teacher responded, "Well, I guess I am." She then repeated the question for the entire audience, "Who here is responsible for staff development?" Every hand in the auditorium was raised.

The term *professional development* has helped to shift the responsibility for educator learning away from outside consultants and district planners and toward practitioners themselves. All educators have the responsibility to continue to improve their own practice, and also the practice of the profession in general. It also forces educators to consider what makes a "professional."

Tracing the evolution of terms used to describe teacher learning can tell us a lot about the changing nature of education. What teachers study to improve their practice is fascinating. How teachers work to improve their practice is even more revealing. The most engaging aspect of the changing nature of teacher learning is who is responsible for quality teaching. More and more educators are saying, "We are!" No doubt, the notion of teacher learning to improve the quality of practice will undergo a few more name changes as the profession matures. For the remainder of this chapter, we will use the phrase that is currently heard most often, "professional development."

Many argue that former notions of professional development are no longer useful (Lambert 1989; Fullan 1990; Sparks 1991a; Bennett 1992). The old model of "in-servicing" teachers is inappropriate because it does not value the teacher as a learner. Professional development must not be limited to the role of a delivery system (Lambert 1989; Fullan 1990). Fullan argues further that although staff development has gained increased prominence, it must be seen as more than an innovation in itself. If not, the impact of staff development as an add-on "will be superficial and short-term and will be confined to a few participants" (Fullan 1990, 11). All would agree with Sparks that "a more comprehensive notion of staff development is absolutely essential" (Sparks 1991a, 2). "The revolutionary insight into adult learning" (Lambert 1989, 79), "how staff development fits into long-term institutional purposes" (Fullan 1990, 11), the "need to think of schools as learning systems" (Bennett 1992), and the "recognition that change efforts thrive only in growth-oriented cultures" (Sparks 1991a, 2) are leading educators to reconsider the potential of professional development.

Perhaps the evolution of the concept of staff development parallels the changing notion of teaching and learning. When education considered its primary responsibility to be the transmission of knowledge to students, in-service education was being delivered to teachers in a similar fashion. As teachers began to recognize the value of basing learning more on the needs of students, staff development began to involve teachers more in the decision making regarding their own growth. Now, as professional development broadens its view to encompass transformative notions of cultural, organizational, and systemwide change and growth, will we see the concept of student learning change correspondingly? The power of this emerging concept of professional development is discussed in the next section.

What Is Good Professional Development?

> The staff developer of the 90's is truly a social architect whose goal is to build a culture of learning. The dominant staff development task of the decade, therefore, is to modify the structure of the workplace. When teachers, along with principals and others develop as caretakers, collaborators, problem seekers, action researchers, and designers of responsive student-centered curriculums, then students will work harder, more meaningfully, and with more satisfaction than ever before (Garmston 1991, 65).

Remember the feeling that everyone shared after the "splashdown" of a successful spaceflight, and later with the landing of the space shuttle: the sense of pride, accomplishment, and relief. For many, it felt like they were members of the team, working to ensure the success of the flight. Like the students in a school in which teachers model good learning, everyone benefits from the experience. Good professional development has the same pervasive quality. It makes all of us, as members of the learning community, better. What are the elements of this "culture of learning"?

Professionalism

Sergiovanni approaches this idea by advancing the notion of professionalism. "Professionalism -- is defined by competence plus virtue" (Sergiovanni 1992b, 43). He goes on to explain the moral dimensions of professional virtue:

> . . . [A] commitment to practice in an exemplary way; a commitment to practice toward valued social ends; a commitment not only to one's own practice but to the practice itself; a commitment to the ethic of caring (Sergiovanni 1992b, 43).

His point emphasizes that good teaching is more than excellent technical instruction; there is also an ethical dimension that any professional must assume.

A Commitment to Practice in an Exemplary Way

This commitment means to become a lead learner, to model the best of what you know about learning, and to stay abreast of the current research in teaching. Action research into your own teaching becomes a way to improve according to Zuber-Skerritt. By reflecting on your practice, you "develop context-specific theories that further [y]our own understanding of [y]our work and generate knowledge to inform future practice" (Killion and Todnem 1991, 14). Making connections between the research on teaching and learning and one's own insights pushes you to remain fresh and on the edge. The importance of transferring that wisdom to practice (Dandridge 1988, 7) becomes ingrained in each practitioner. Sharing ideas for better practice models learning for others in the school community (Hofsess 1990); it reinforces the social aspect of teacher learning. As this obligation toward exemplary practice becomes the norm, you assume the responsibility for your own growth and development. Good professional development fosters this value of inquiry and the knowledge that arises from it because it helps to improve what you do.

A Commitment to Practice Toward Valued Social Ends

This type of commitment leads to community building. It encourages you to understand the concerns of students, parents, and community members; to help reach some agreement about the purposes and aims of the school; and then together with your colleagues, establish a coherence between these goals and visions and the structure of the organization. The bottom line for educators is what students learn (Sparks 1991a), but in a learning community "everyone is valued as a learner" (Bennett 1992). You need to become more familiar with the skills of community building. Promoting interactive listening, receptivity, responsiveness, and cultivating reciprocity and interdependence (Oregon Department of Education 1990) are ways to build community. It is also important for you, as an educator, to help the community realize the best of itself -- to find a pride in its identity -- a collective self-esteem (Sparks 1991b). Helping the community develop a mission for its school, and responsibly aligning yourself with it, is an ethic of service to others that you and your colleagues can pursue. Good professional development is an integrated part of the community's vision for the school.

A Commitment to the Practice Itself

The notion that you are responsible for more than your own practice, for the practice as a whole, forces you to broaden your view of professional development. What does it mean to practice collectively? It means you:

- can no longer look the other way when a colleague is in trouble or having difficulties;
- share what you are learning in your own classroom;
- share in the success of the organization; and
- work with your colleagues to overcome weaknesses.

For this internally felt responsibility to flourish, you must become colleagues. Creating a culture of collegiality is not an easy process. Collegiality is more than congeniality (Barth 1980). It is an orientation toward talking about practice, observing one other, doing joint work and practicing teamwork, and teaching one another. As you learn to share the responsibility for decisions in the school, you also share in each other's successes and offer support and assistance when you struggle and fail. Establishing a climate for collaboration means encouraging experimentation, risk taking, and open communication. You learn to value the differences among your colleagues and understand that you know more collectively than you know as individuals. You help each other get better at what you do because you and your colleagues are obligated to your learning community and because you believe in the value of teaching. Becoming colleagues adds up to more than the sum of the individuals of an organization. There is a synergy that makes everyone better. Good professional development fosters the climate and culture which supports collegiality.

A Commitment to the Ethic of Caring

Sergiovanni draws on Noddings (1991) to emphasize the importance of viewing students as persons to be cared for, not just treated and released. You need to be a model of caring for your students, your learning community, and each other. Inherent in the notion of caring is trust encouraged through an atmosphere described above. You emote as you work: you celebrate your accomplishments, recognize and appreciate others, laugh with colleagues, and console each other over discouragements and setbacks. Caring also means attending to all of the needs of those you serve, not just the academic needs of students. This is the motivating force as teachers thoughtfully prepare, enthusiastically facilitate, and sensitively evaluate student learning. It is the undercurrent of all that professional educators do, for their students and for each other. Good professional development helps you enhance your capacity to care for others.

Attributes of Good Professional Development

The professional virtues described above give a solid grounding upon which to place the critical attributes of good professional development. Similar elements emerge from various reviews of this culture of professional development (Barth 1980; Saphier and King 1985; Loucks-Horsley, Harding, Arbuckle, Murray, Dubea, and Williams 1987; Wildman and Niles 1987; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory 1990). The following five general themes describe good professional development:

Colleagueship

Colleagueship is the idea that we are in this venture together. As a collection of individuals with a common vision, we are committed to working collaboratively to improve the standing of the learning community to which we belong. To do this, we strive to create a culture which supports all of us. We hold high expectations for ourselves, both individually and collectively. We appreciate the challenge of our work because we believe we can succeed. We know our individual and collective talents. Understanding our strengths and weaknesses helps us build the interdependence of a dynamic learning system. All of the parts understand what the other parts are doing. Each member of the team may stand alone as an exemplary part of the entire organization. Yet, the whole team is greater than the sum of its parts. This atmosphere of collegiality fosters experimentation and risk taking. It demands recognition, appreciation, and celebration of the successes of school improvement. Likewise, recognition, appreciation, and examination of failures are also an essential part of this orientation. Colleagueship in professional development means that we bring the best of ourselves to an association.

Shared Responsibility

Shared responsibility for quality resounds as another critical element of professional development. As professionals, we share in decisions about teaching practice. Shared decisions require that we are actively involved. This collective autonomy demands a new kind of team leadership. It necessitates a high level of effective communication skills. Honest, open exchanges occur in an atmosphere in which everyone's opinion is accepted, differences are valued, and trust and support are the norms. We must take primary responsibility for our own professional growth, but we must do it in full view and with the support of associates. We must help each other improve our practice. Therefore, we need to determine the direction of that growth. We must also be accountable to the learning community in which we work. A responsible meshing of personal and schoolwide needs becomes the direction of professional development.

Resourcefulness

The third theme which emerges as a critical part of professional development is resourcefulness. The most significant thrust here is that we need to recognize that we are most often our own best resources. We need opportunities to realize that. Time is the most often-mentioned factor as a necessary resource. Teacher learning takes time, just like student learning. This is a critical resource. Recognition and incentives for improvement are another useful resource. Extrinsic rewards for continued growth are nice, but for most of us the intrinsic rewards of opportunities to expand our repertoire or refine an instructional practice are enough. However, time and incentives alone will not do the job. We need an awareness of the literature on adult development, teacher development, and change theory. This becomes the context for school improvement. We must incorporate the best of what we know about teaching and learning into our own practice. Research on teaching and learning from different orientations should be used. Knowledge comes not only from without, but also from within. Action research is a most powerful resource for improving teaching. Inquiry-oriented professional development has a very persuasive quality: we cannot remain unchanged by what we learn! As learners/researchers, we choose our issue, gather our own data, reflect on the results, and then adjust accordingly. This collective self-examination is a learning community's most valuable resource. Professional development must ensure these resources.

Coherence

Coherence of goals, directions, missions, and visions requires that professional development be incorporated into the fabric of what the school is about. Every professional development program must have a philosophy which is congruent with the goals of the school and district. When goals of the components of a school are integrated, there is a powerful force which takes on a life of its own. Every part is assured of the complicity and support of the other elements. The educational aims of the community are infused into the policy and practice of the system. Mottos and slogans emerge from this coherence which establish priorities and help focus the direction of the learning community. Traditions arise which represent the best of the school or district. They become examples of what the community stands for and become guides for future endeavors. Professional development must arise from and be an integral part of a vision of the larger community.

Renewal

The fifth critical quality of professional development is renewal. Growth is ongoing, it is not a one-shot deal. Follow-up is often mentioned as a necessary part of effective professional development. But it is not just a reconnection with resources that is needed. Follow-up is one way to continue learning. The point is that with appropriate support (perhaps from the outside initially, but always and consistently from within), a school eventually can create a self-sustaining norm of improvement. A good school builds upon what it knows, and is always trying to renew itself. Everywhere, there are conversations about how it can be done better. Evaluation does not have the shadow of punishment, rather it is an essential part of helping us find a way to excel. Good professional development teases our natural curiosity and our inherent desire to do our best. It keeps us on the edge of our seats, looking for a better way . . . alert, fresh, always growing and learning.

How Can Induction Represent the Best of Professional Development Practices?

Returning to the intensity and fragility of the launch metaphor should remind us why the first "real" years of teaching must embody the best of professional development. This is a time of high risk, when many new teachers leave the profession. It is also the time for building momentum. The patterns established in the initial years of teaching usually remain for an entire career. It is also a time when a clear direction is set, that is, where a new teacher is headed in those initial years is usually where that teacher ends up. Socializing newcomers into a vibrant, caring, collegial, and challenging environment is a role of professional development. What is experienced here will shape the quality of teaching and learning for the future. "Well-designed induction . . .

is inherently . . . excellent staff development" (Andrews 1987, 142) (*see Activity 5-1, "Mentoring Models the Best of Professional Growth," on page 5-15*). Let us examine some essential induction practices indicated by the attributes of professional development discussed above.

Induction Is a Transition Period

It is often a difficult adjustment from the academic world to the real world of the classroom (Moffett, St. John, and Isken 1987). It is a time when new teachers must reconcile the idealistic with the pragmatic (Andrews 1987). Professional development must act as a bridge between these two worlds. Often, little or no recognition is given to what new teachers might bring to their practice. They are only valued for how well they adapt to the present system. An induction program recognizes the "freshness factor" of newcomers. It encourages the idealism of what they see as best practice. It provides a platform from which they can begin to share their most recent knowledge. It supports the newcomers' reconciliation of the ideal and practical. An induction program, which provides this supportive forum, distinguishes between new teacher survival and new teacher growth (Cole 1990) and acknowledges this transition as one more phase in the continuing development of teachers.

Another way that induction can model the best of professional development is to advocate for excellent, competent teaching (Zimpher and Grossman 1992).

Selecting Exemplary Teachers as Mentors

Beginning teachers have three needs:

- to develop a satisfaction with their commitment to teach;
- to be enculturated into the system; and
- to develop professional competence (Hirsh and Ponder 1991).

Whom better to learn these from than the best teachers? Good teachers know that excellent teaching does not look the same in every classroom and that they need not make their proteges over into clones of themselves (Zimpher and Grossman 1992). Concepts of excellent teaching come from reflecting on good practice, asking questions, and incorporating new ideas. What constitutes excellent teaching will continue to evolve. What an induction program does, like excellent professional development, is to keep the focus on the very best teaching practices.

Fostering Growth and Development of Mentor Teachers

As an induction program identifies the very best teachers to serve as mentors, it must also provide for the continued growth and development of these experienced teachers. Killion (1990) outlines four benefits for mentors participating in an induction program: growth, recognition, experience-enhancing roles, and collegiality. "Mentors reported that they have grown professionally through their reflection upon teaching and their teaching of inexperienced teachers." Recognition of the level of expertise needed to serve as a mentor "lends an aura of dignity, respect, and responsibility to the role of teacher." A third outcome is that "mentors' responsibilities expand from those of a classroom teacher to include the role of teacher educator." A final benefit to mentors is "a new and purposeful means to increase collegiality" (Killion 1990, 34-35). These positive results are experienced by veteran teachers who serve as mentors. While having experienced teachers serve as resources to new teachers, an induction program simultaneously ensures that mentors are valued, renewed, revitalized, and recommitted to the profession.

Promoting an Ethic of Improving Practice

An induction program should also model good professional development by emphasizing that "learning to teach is an ongoing process" (Holland, Clift, Veal, Johnson, and McCarthy 1992, 178). New teachers must realize that teaching is a career-long commitment to learning and systematic study (Andrews 1987). It demands an effort to stay current in subject matter as well as professional knowledge. This concept also requires an acceptance and tolerance for different ways of knowing. As Wildman and Niles suggest, the literature is full of what teachers should know and be able to do, "but relatively little about how teachers become good" (Wildman and Niles 1987, 4). Therefore, good induction programs keep the door to this process open by stimulating exploration, promoting appropriate dissonance, encouraging action research, and acknowledging that there is more than one way to become an excellent teacher. This also means that risk taking and the demonstration of new ideas are supported (Sergiovanni 1992a).

As schools restructure, teachers are already assuming new roles and responsibilities. Teachers are assuming the role of facilitators of learning in their classrooms and as change agents within their own school systems. This orientation to change must be part of any induction program, just as it is part of professional development. The process of learning and changing is a constant. New teachers need to be socialized into an atmosphere that demands risking and reaching to find better ways to meet the needs of students.

Encouraging Collegial Support

Collegial support is another critical attribute of professional development which needs to be reflected in the induction program. Collegiality is a cultural norm which must be apparent to new teachers from the beginning of their practice. It encompasses all the elements noted above: support from peers, a challenge to excel, collaboration, and -- most important -- the belief that we all belong to something good. Integrating newcomers into this culture is the job of the mentoring program. It requires mentors to lead the way: to teach "the ropes," share resources, connect novices with other colleagues, lead the discussion about good teaching, and coach the new teacher as a valued member of the entire school team. The idea of colleagues working together builds trust and promotes credibility.

Integrating Mentoring into the Professional Development Plan of a School System

The mentoring program itself must fit naturally into the overall professional development plan for the learning community. Mentoring must be seen not as an add-on, but as an imbedded part of a professional obligation. To have an induction program advocating ideas contradictory to the overall goals or vision of the school system could spell disaster. There must be a congruence between the aims of education in the community, the purpose of teacher learning within the system, and the philosophy of the mentoring program. To do less would be to jeopardize the successful integration of new teachers into a fulfilling practice.

Sharing Decision Making

If it is important that teachers participate equally in the planning of their own development, then it is also important for new teachers to participate in the design and implementation of the mentoring program. We only learn that professional development is our collective responsibility through an experience which values our participation and involvement. The leaders of the induction program must be prepared to build the program around the needs of those it serves (Gomez and Comeaux 1990). They must be ready to offer options, choices, authority, and responsibility to the new teachers (Lambert 1989). This is more than a symbolic gesture. It models the flexibility and responsiveness which good teachers display for their students.

Practicing Mutuality and Reciprocity

A corollary to the significance of involving new teachers in the operation of the mentoring program is the concept of mutuality and reciprocity. It is connected to the need to find the best teachers and learners as mentors. There is a give-and-take that must be encouraged between individual mentors and new teachers, and between the collective groups of mentors and new teachers. New teachers must remain open to the transfer of the wisdom of years of practice. Mentors must remain willing to grow and prosper from contact with newcomers. The ultimate goal of mentoring should be to help the new teacher become an exemplary one, as wise and competent as the mentor -- in effect, an auto-mentor. Glickman asks, ". . . do we aim our . . . work at instilling our truth about practice . . . or do we aim our work at assisting teachers to challenge not merely the conventional, but our wisdom about education, learning and schools?" (Glickman 1988, 11). If we are committed to growth and change, we must expect the new teachers to challenge our thinking. We must encourage dissension and conflict around ideas pertinent to teaching. Mutuality and reciprocity mean the opinions of all are valued equally.

One of the dilemmas which faces an induction program is one that is also very much a part of professional development discussions. How do we know (or more importantly, who decides) if the teacher is growing and improving adequately? Should induction programs provide assistance, assessment, or both? While most induction programs are intended to provide nonevaluative support, some programs do include an evaluation process for newcomers. While professional development usually focuses on formative growth, there are ways that success in these areas can be evaluated in job performance. Zimpher and Grossman suggest that new models of "teacher-directed, collegial supervision" (Zimpher and Grossman 1992, 143-144) may blend assistance and assessment. This debate will continue for some time within induction circles, which seem the most likely place, and within the larger realm of professional development.

Summary

The above discussion of important induction practices is not intended to be conclusive. The changing nature of professional development will demand that its critical attributes be reassessed. That means also examining mentoring through the same lenses. Induction is a crucial stage in the professional development journey.

> The implications for school improvement and staff development are almost limitless when viewed from a teacher-induction perspective. All members of a school are affected by teacher induction practices . . . (Orlich 1989, 78).

The following questions, along with others of your own (and program evaluation strategies from Chapter 4), may help you see how well induction models the best of teacher learning:

- How does the induction program help new teachers reconcile the ideal academic world and the practical realm of the classroom?

- How does the induction program maintain a focus on the best teaching practices? How instructionally active is the professional environment?
- How does the induction program benefit those who serve as mentors?
- How is the process of learning to teach a prominent part of the induction program?
- How is action research used in the program?
- How is change theory and restructuring reflected in the mentoring program?
- How does the mentoring program foster collegiality?
- How is teaming reflected in the program?
- How well are the goals of the mentoring program aligned with those of the learning community and the overall plan for professional development?
- How does the induction program respond to the expressed needs of the new teachers?
- How have the new teachers been involved in the decision making of the program?
- How does the induction program promote mutuality and reciprocity between mentors and new teachers?
- How does the induction program address new teacher assistance and assessment?
- What model of supervision operates within the induction program?

Transforming the Profession: The Power of Mentoring

The current depiction of the first years of teaching as survival rather than growth is unacceptable. "Is it any surprise that, nationally, half of our entering teachers leave the profession within five years? We cannot allow this continuing exodus of our most intellectually capable teachers" (Garmston 1991, 64). We would not send our best astronauts into space alone, without the support of an entire learning system. Nor would we stand by and not let them continue to contribute their experience and knowledge to the next "crew." Just as these select astronauts fly for their program, and in a sense for all of us, so should our new teachers receive the best we can offer. How we treat the least experienced among us is a reflection of how we feel about ourselves as a profession. The importance given to induction is a barometer of our professional self-esteem. "Collectively, beginning teacher programs are investments in human capital and reflect visions of confidence" (Orlich 1989, 79) in teaching.

Therein lies the transformative power of mentoring. As the profession administers resources to renew itself, it becomes empowered. The more empowered an institution becomes, the more able it is to adapt to and confront change with confidence. This latest notion of teacher empowerment is a collaborative one.

> . . . [A]ll teaching worthy of the name contains an element of mentoring which brings to teaching such unique dimensions as trust, vision, and a sense of immortality (Yamamoto 1988, 183).

It is a rich blend of the veteran and the new teacher. As Yamamoto describes it, it is a paradox. "Mentoring involves an experience of transcendence for the mentor and one of transformation for the protege" (Yamamoto 1988, 187). We, as mentors, have an obligation to anticipate and guide new teachers to be able to understand teaching in their own way, and more importantly, to prepare for a future profession which many mentors might only envision. New teachers have the responsibility to receive this gift graciously and to make the most of the opportunity to learn the craft in all of its dimensions, because therein lies the next generation of teaching. We all need mentors to nurture and coach us. We also all need to mentor, to help us identify and pass along the best of what we do and who we are.

Mentoring is at the core of teaching and learning. It is a human link in our profession. This relationship is teaching and learning personified. How can our students not be moved by how we treat the least experienced teachers among us? The message is that learning to be better at what we do and who we are is what school is all about. On with the launch. . . .

ACTIVITY FOR CHAPTER 5

	Activity	Purpose(s)	Time	Level	Format
5-1.	Mentoring Models the Best of Professional Growth (page 5-15)	To help with the integration and alignment of the mentoring and professional development programs in a district	90 minutes	Awareness	Small-group work

ACTIVITY 5-1

MENTORING MODELS THE BEST OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Purpose: To help with the integration and alignment of the mentoring and professional development programs in a district

Materials: Enough copies of the handout "Integrating and Aligning Professional Development and Mentoring Programs" for each participant, and pencils or pens

Trainer's Notes: This activity is one that fosters the notion that mentoring programs should model the best of professional development. Ensure that participants have read Chapter 5.

Who is the audience? This activity works best when members of the mentoring planning committee and the professional development committee are working together in Step 1. If your entire group consists of 10 or less, you may decide to go from Step 3 to Step 5 and omit Step 4.

Process/Steps:

1. Ask participants to form pairs.
2. Distribute the handout "Integrating and Aligning Professional Development and Mentoring Programs."
3. Ask each pair to complete Section A of each question. (Allow four minutes for each question.)
4. Ask pairs to form groups of four to complete Section B of each question.
5. Have each small group share their responses from Section B of each question with the whole group.

Time Required: 90 minutes

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INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS

1. How are participants appropriately involved in the planning, delivery, and decision-making of . . .

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="1">A</td><td>. . . professional development?</td><td>. . . mentoring?</td></tr>
<tr><td>B</td><td colspan="2">How can these be integrated and aligned?</td></tr>
</table>

2. How are principles of adult learning and the change process reflected in . . .

<table>
<tr><td>A</td><td>. . . professional development?</td><td>. . . mentoring?</td></tr>
<tr><td>B</td><td colspan="2">How can these be integrated and aligned?</td></tr>
</table>

INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS
(continued)

3. How are theory and practice connected in . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

4. How are collaboration and collegiality fostered in . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS (continued)

5. What leadership and administrative support is available to . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

6. What are the incentives and rewards for participants in . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS (continued)

7. What is the method of evaluation for . . .

<table>
<tr><td>A</td><td>. . . professional development?</td><td>. . . mentoring?</td></tr>
<tr><td>B</td><td colspan="2">How can these be integrated and aligned?</td></tr>
</table>

8. Who is responsible for evaluating . . .

<table>
<tr><td>A</td><td>. . . professional development?</td><td>. . . mentoring?</td></tr>
<tr><td>B</td><td colspan="2">How can these be integrated and aligned?</td></tr>
</table>

INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS (continued)

9. What time is allotted for . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

10. What resources are needed and available for . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

INTEGRATING AND ALIGNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING PROGRAMS (continued)

11. How are school improvement and renewal fostered by . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

12. How does the school community's philosophy align with the mission of . . .

A	. . . professional development?	. . . mentoring?
B	How can these be integrated and aligned?	

RESOURCES ON TEACHER INDUCTION AS THE CRUCIAL STAGE OF THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT JOURNEY

TEACHER INDUCTION AS THE CRUCIAL STAGE – Selected Resources

Cole, Ardra. Fall 1990. "Helping Teachers Become 'Real': Opportunities in Teacher Induction." *Journal of Staff Development* 11 (4): 6-9.

> The author's metaphor of becoming "real" builds a captivating perspective to view issues related to teacher induction and educational reform. Examples from Ontario are illustrated.

Hofsess, Donna. Spring 1990. "The Power of Mentoring: A Moving Force in Staff Development." *Journal of Staff Development* 11 (2): 20-24.

> This description of a three-year training program highlights the interface between mentoring and staff development.

Saphier, Jon and King, Matthew. March 1985. "Good Seeds Grow in Strong Cultures." *Educational Leadership* 43 (6): 67-74.

> This article offers one of the most comprehensive and useful articulations of elements in a successful program for changing the culture of schools.

TEACHER INDUCTION AS THE CRUCIAL STAGE – Other Resources

Andrews, Ian. 1987. "Induction Programs: Staff Development Opportunities for Beginning and Experienced Teachers." In *Staff Development for School Improvement: A Focus on the Teacher*, edited by M. F. Wideen and Ian Andrews. London: Falmer Press.

Barth, Roland S. 1980. "Staff Development." In *Run School Run*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

________________. 1990. *Improving Schools from Within*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Bennett, Barrie. January 1992. Workshop presentation. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

Dandridge, William L. 1988. *Teachers as Mentors: New Roles and Career Paths*. Bridgewater, MA: Massachusetts Field Center for Teaching and Learning.

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Garmston, Robert. November 1991. "Staff Developers as Social Architects." *Educational Leadership* 49 (3): 64-65.

TEACHER INDUCTION AS THE CRUCIAL STAGE – Other Resources (continued)

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Killion, Joellen P. Fall 1990. "The Benefits of an Induction Program for Experienced Teachers." *Journal of Staff Development* 11 (4): 32-36.

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Krupp, Judy Arin. Fall 1991. "Beyond the 3 R's: Focusing on Quality Life." *Journal of Staff Development* 12 (4): 20-23.

Lambert, Linda. September 1989. "The End of an Era of Staff Development." *Educational Leadership* 47 (1): 78-81.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan; Harding, Catherine K.; Arbuckle, Margaret A.; Murray, Lynn B.; Dubea, Cynthia; and Williams, Martha K. 1987. *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands; Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.

Moffett, Kenneth L.; St. John, Jane; and Isken, Jo Ann. February 1987. "Training and Coaching Beginning Teachers: An Antidote to Reality Shock." *Educational Leadership* 45 (5): 34-36.

Noddings, Nel. 1991. "Caring and Continuity in Education." *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research* 35 (1): 3-11.

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TEACHER INDUCTION AS THE CRUCIAL STAGE – Other Resources (continued)

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Zuber-Skerritt, Ortrun. 1991. "Action Research as a Model of Professional Development." In *Action Research for Change and Development*, edited by Ortrun Zuber-Skerritt. Aldershot, GB: Avebury.